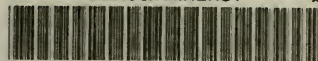


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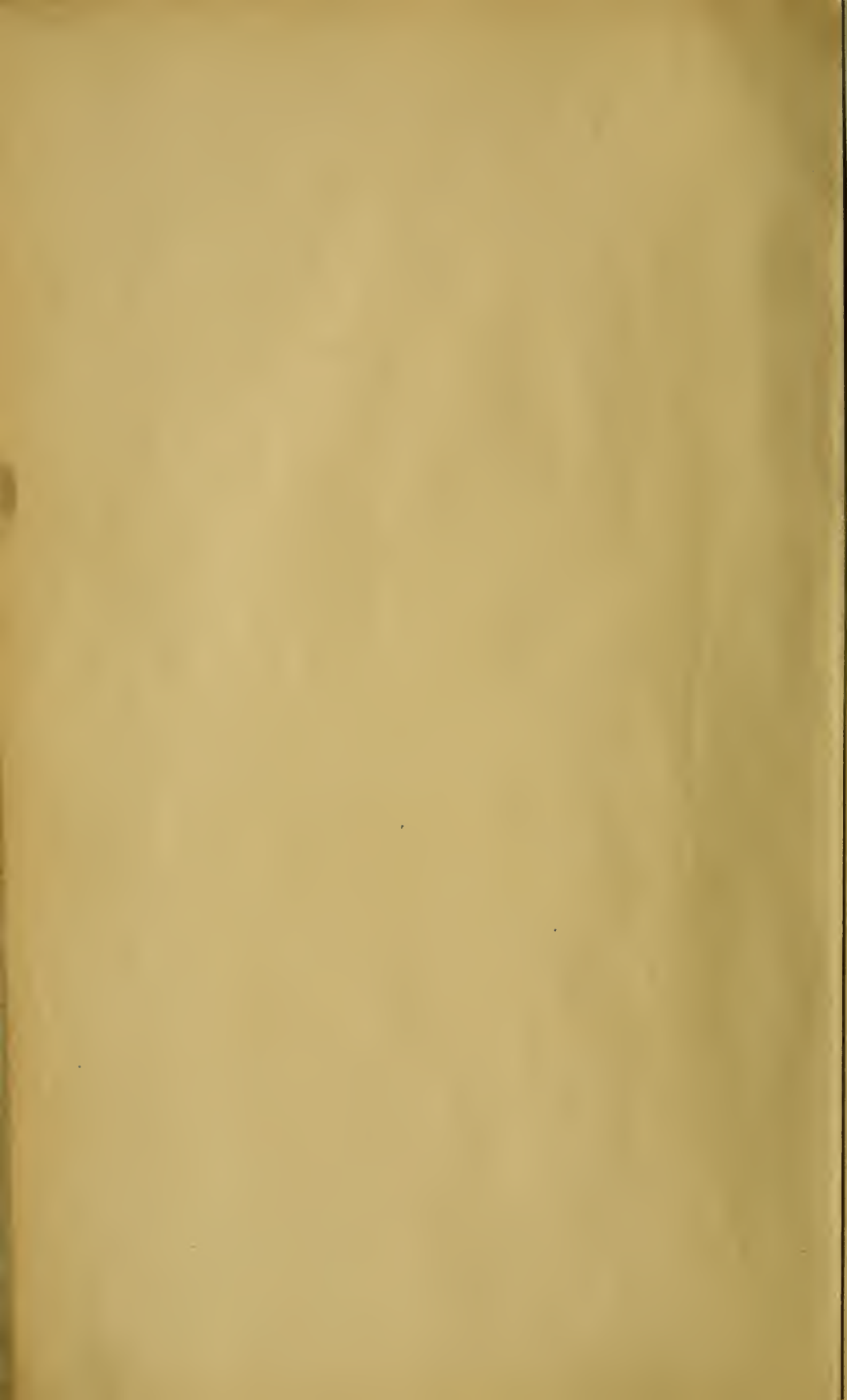
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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



BOLOGNESI BRIDGE, AREQUIPA, PERU

JANUARY

1933

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UNION OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS



# BULLETIN

OF THE

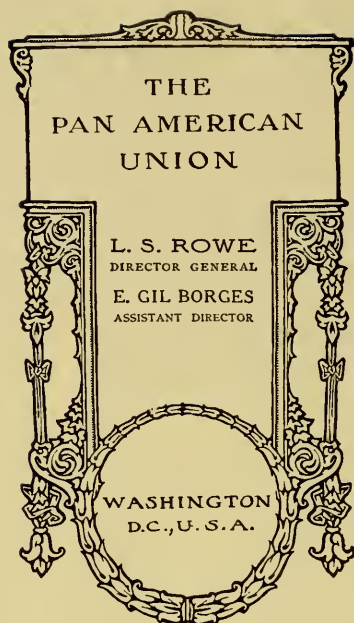
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Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, Washington, D. C.

HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR DON OSCAR B. CINTAS  
AMBASSADOR EXTRAORDINARY AND PLENIPOTENTIARY OF CUBA IN THE  
UNITED STATES

# BULLETIN

## OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



VOL. LXVII

JANUARY, 1933

No. 1

## SEÑOR OSCAR B. CINTAS, AMBASSADOR OF CUBA IN WASHINGTON

SEÑOR OSCAR B. CINTAS, the newly appointed ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary of Cuba to the United States, presented his letters of credence to President Hoover on November 18, 1932. In the course of his remarks on that occasion, he said:

It is a great pleasure for me on this occasion to express to your excellency the sentiments of great friendship of the Government and people of Cuba, a friendship which is traditional and which has its foundations in the period in which with enormous sacrifices our nationality was founded.

The policy of my Government is to continue strengthening, on its part, the moral ties which bind our two peoples, and to intensify in the conscience of our citizens the sentiment of gratitude toward the United States for the noble aid given us in the conquest of our independence. My Government likewise believes that our economic relations, disturbed by the violent crisis of these last few years, can be reaffirmed to reciprocal advantage on broader and more solid bases.

My mission before your excellency will be to interpret with pleasure these good aims. Accustomed as I am to appreciate the high character of the citizens of your country in other fields of activity, with indisputable moral benefit to me, nothing will satisfy me more than to cooperate for the success of my Government's policy near your excellency.

To this President Hoover replied:

Your reference to the traditional sentiments of friendship and the close ties of sympathy which have bound our two peoples since the time of your heroic struggle for independence is gratifying to hear. Your previous residence in this country and your understanding of our problems make you unusually well qualified to strengthen the cordial relations which have always existed between the United States and Cuba.

With respect to your remarks concerning the violent crisis of the last few years which has so disturbed our economic relations, it is to be hoped that world recovery aided by curative economic measures and restored confidence may bring about the alleviation of existing conditions, with resultant mutual benefit to our two countries.

The appointment of Señor Cintas brings to Washington one of the ablest Cuban men of affairs. Although this is his first diplomatic post, he comes here exceptionally well equipped by reason of his varied business contacts, extensive travels, and previous residence in the United States.

Señor Cintas was born on March 31, 1887, in Sagua la Grande, a sugar center on the southern shore of Cuba. Part of his education was received in England, where he went at the age of 16 to remain for almost 5 years. Perhaps it was there that his enthusiasm for tennis and his interest in the arts were first stimulated. He is well known as a patron of art, and his collection of paintings is noteworthy.

After returning to Cuba in 1909, he established himself in Habana, where he took an active part in commercial and industrial enterprises. He has won prominence in sugar and railway circles, holding important positions in corporations related to the latter industry in Argentina, Brazil, the United States, France, and England, as well as in his native country. These business activities have given the new ambassador a wide acquaintance with the leading European and American bankers and industrialists. His travels in the furtherance of these interests have carried him over a large part of America, and his contacts with men and affairs in other parts of the continent will be of great help to him in his labors in the hitherto untried field of diplomacy.





DR. RICARDO J. ALFARO  
ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF PANAMA IN  
THE UNITED STATES

Doctor Alfaro has returned to the United States as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of his country, in which capacity he served with distinction from 1922 to 1931. In January of the latter year, as First Designate, he was called to fill the vacancy in the Presidency of the Republic until the inauguration of President Arias on October 1, 1932. A lawyer by profession, Doctor Alfaro has taken an active part in the cause of education and in addition is known as an eminent author. During a brilliant public career he has occupied the cabinet positions of Secretary of Government and Justice and of Foreign Affairs. Always an enthusiastic supporter of the ideals of Pan Americanism, Doctor Alfaro has represented Panama in numerous Pan American and international conferences. He presented his letters of credence to President Hoover on November 28, 1932.



## FORDLANDIA, BRAZIL

*The publication of this article is authorized by the Ford Motor Co.*

**I**N the heart of tropical northern Brazil, at Boa Vista, on the Tapajoz River, 140 miles south of its confluence with the Amazon, lies the plantation of the Companhia Ford Industrial do Brasil, commonly called in that country "Fordlandia."

There on terraced hills which rise from the river grow orderly rows of rubber trees where once the tangled jungle stood. Each year the forest is pushed back farther, new terraces are constructed, and thousands of new seedlings transplanted from the nurseries. Within four years the first new trees will come into bearing and each year thereafter rubber production will grow until eventually the plantation output becomes a factor to be reckoned with in the world rubber market.

The vast Ford plantation, with a 75-mile water front on the Tapajoz, inclosing some 2,471,000 acres in the richest rubber country in the world, was born in the days when British and Dutch planters in Malaya, controlling the world's rubber supply, attempted—for a time successfully—to dictate by export restrictions the price the world should pay for its rubber.

For a century, until 1910, northern Brazil was virtually the world's sole source of rubber. Its chief cities, Belem at the mouth of the Amazon, and Manaus, more than 900 miles up that mighty river, tapped a vast empire from which issued a seemingly never-ending flow of "black gold."

Latex, or sap, containing rubber is found in a great many species of trees and plants the world over, but nearly the whole of the world's rubber supply is obtained from a tree known as the *Hevea brasiliensis*, which is indigenous to the Amazon Valley. There the heaviest-bearing rubber trees in the world grow wild in the jungle—great towering, living fountains of wealth, giving forth the rich sap which made the word "Pará" synonymous with quality in rubber.

It was upon these trees, scattered here and there through the forest, that the Brazilian rubber empire was founded. From them the inhabitants of the Amazon Valley, skirting only the river fringes of the jungle, gathered the latex, dried it over outdoor fires, and produced balls and slabs of crude rubber, in which form it subsequently was exported. Needless to say, the rubber was likely to be mixed with sticks, stones, and other impurities.

Tens of thousands of workers were engaged directly and indirectly in the industry. Its production was unorganized, its product unstandardized, yet this tropical El Dorado yielded enough rubber for



Courtesy of the Ford Motor Co.

#### THE FORD PLANTATION HEADQUARTERS AT BOA VISTA IN 1931

The present-day community stands as a monument to the ingenuity and labor of the engineers and workmen. Upper: View from the hospital toward the Tapajoz River, with staff houses at left and sawmill in center background. Lower: The village as seen from the office building.

most of the world's requirements, even in the early days of the automobile industry.

Eventually, such an industry was doomed to fall in the march of progress. In spite of the vast natural resources of the Amazon Valley, the demand for Pará rubber was destined to grow far beyond the quantity the Amazon Valley was able to supply. In such a situation it was only natural that men and nations should begin to look about for other sources of supply. Almost a century ago attention had been called to the possibility of growing rubber in the East Indies, which offer the requisite climatic conditions. It is 60 years since the first experiments were started in England. Two thousand rubber-tree seeds were shipped from the Amazon to Kew Gardens, but only a dozen seeds germinated and the six shoots sent to the Royal Botanical Gardens in Calcutta did not thrive there.

The experimenters were persistent, however. Eventually, 70,000 rubber-tree seeds were smuggled from the Amazon to Kew Gardens. Hothouses were summarily emptied, the precious seeds planted. After the young plants were up, 2,000 were dispatched to Ceylon, where they thrived beyond expectations. Thus was laid the foundation for the East Indian rubber trade. Later, seeds and plants were shipped to other countries, and the great plantations in the Dutch East Indies, Malaya, and Ceylon were the result.

The first offer of plantation rubber on the world market was made in 1910, when 20,000 pounds of clean, graded Pará rubber from the Orient were sold in New York. That shipment sounded the knell of the Amazonian rubber industry. The dominance of East Indian rubber began to assert itself soon thereafter. The principal industry of northern Brazil collapsed and the rotting wharves and docks, abandoned warehouses, and laid-up fleets of the river cities bore eloquent testimony to the ruin brought about by a British and Dutch East Indian monopoly of the world rubber market.

Thereafter, through half a generation of foreign domination, the Brazilian rubber empire was in eclipse, although the transportation of the world was rapidly turning to rubber-tired vehicles and the demand for rubber soared.

Eventually, however, as is the habit with monopolies, the East Indian rubber industry overreached itself. First, influenced by the high prices prevailing during and shortly after the war, the planters expanded their production beyond the demands of the postwar years. Then, in an attempt to nullify the inexorable law of supply and demand it was sought to control rubber exports—and thus the world rubber price—by the Export of Rubber Enactment, popularly known as the Stevenson Restriction Act.



Under this measure the release of rubber stocks was controlled by the ruling market price. For a time what was termed a fair market price was obtained for growers, at the expense of the rubber-consuming countries of the world, while the price of rubber was maintained, purely by this artificial method, at levels which were not justified by the supply.

It was when these restrictions began to bear most heavily upon the United States, the principal rubber-consuming country, and especially upon American automobile manufacturers, that the attempt to challenge the East Indian monopoly was made. On the River



Courtesy of the Ford Motor Co.

#### LOADING LOGS

In clearing the forest land, much valuable lumber has been secured. Experiments are being made with a view to the commercial exploitation of several beautiful species of hardwoods.

Rouge in Dearborn, Mich., lies the great Ford plant, covering an area of approximately 1,096 acres, in normal years employing an average of 100,000 workers, and producing an average of 1,000,000 Ford cars and trucks annually.

To equip these cars with five tires each requires about 50,000,000 pounds of rubber a year, not to speak of the many millions of pounds used in the manufacture of some 300 other parts of a car, including composition steering wheels, engine mountings, cushions, gaskets, washers, wire insulation, artificial leather, and a host of others in which rubber is used in one form or another.

Henry Ford, the principal factor in this great industry, ultimately became convinced that its good demanded freedom from the monopoly and the creation of a source of rubber supply much closer to his factories. If possible, he determined, this source must be developed on the American continent. That decision at once dictated that this new supply should come from the Amazon Valley, the natural habitat of the heaviest-bearing rubber trees and the cradle out of which had come the beginnings of the great East Indian plantations.

Once the decision was reached Mr. Ford acted quickly. An expedition of scientists and engineers was dispatched to Brazil, with orders to locate the best site for such a project. After exhaustive study, they selected an area on the southeast bank of the Tapajoz River, 140 miles south of Santarem and 600 miles from the seacoast at Belem. Their selection was reported to Mr. Ford.

At once negotiations were entered into with the government of the State of Para. The necessary guarantees were given and received, and as a result Companhia Ford Industrial do Brasil was granted the present concession, conditioned upon the clearing of certain specified areas of forest land and the planting of certain specified areas to rubber trees.

In return for the development the State government relieved the plantation of all State and municipal imposts for a term of 50 years, it being specified that, after 12 years of operation, 7 per cent of the profits should be returned to the local government, 5 per cent to the State, and 2 per cent to the municipality.

Late in 1927, after these negotiations had been concluded and the expedition had selected Boa Vista as the site for the plantation headquarters, two Ford steamships, loaded at Dearborn, were dispatched to the town site with supplies and equipment for the establishment of the plantation. To-day Boa Vista is 5 years old. Those five years have been packed with strenuous labor for Ford engineers and scientists and their hundreds of Brazilian helpers. As has been said, the first rubber trees grown on the plantation will begin to produce within four years.

The community to-day spreads over the rolling hillside rising from the river banks, a model of city planning and engineering ingenuity. Its site is on the most accessible harbor along the 75-mile water front of the concession. When the first party began building five years ago the site was unbroken jungle. Now towering masses of vegetation have given way to a modern city, complete within itself, bordered with an ever-extending area planted with orderly rows of rubber trees.

The progress of the development of the plantation has been rapid. At the outset, while engineers laid out the modern town, a crew of laborers, armed with machetes, was set to work clearing the jungle.

After the first crew forced its way in, another and still others followed, felling, logging, and burning, until on December 1, 1932, a total of 6,843 acres had been cleared. Additional acreage is in preparation. As the clearing progressed, the logs were hauled away to be converted into lumber for construction of buildings or other uses. After the removal of the logs, the brush was left to dry, and at the end of a few weeks it was burned off.

The clearing of the land thus completed, the preparations for rubber planting were begun. First the rolling hillsides were terraced, to prevent erosion of the rich top soil during heavy rains.



Courtesy of the Ford Motor Co.

#### CLEARING THE LAND

After felling trees and removing logs, the brush and worthless wood are dried and burned.

While all this was in progress rubber experts had been combing the entire Amazon Valley to secure the best seeds of the *Hevea brasiliensis*. Brought back to the plantation, these seeds were germinated in a nursery and nurtured until they were about 3 months old, when they were ready for planting on the terraces. Thus the first 100,000 seedlings were set out. These are now 3-year-old rubber trees and within four more years tapping will begin and the first yield of latex will be gathered. In this same fashion more cleared areas were planted until on December 1, 1932, the plantings totaled 485,000 rubber trees, with 2,440 additional acres prepared and ready for planting.

Although the East Indian plantations originated with seed from the Amazon, there has recently been found very good evidence that seed



from the trees giving the highest yield never left Brazil. As a consequence, much greater yields than those in the East are expected from the plantings at Boa Vista, not only because the trees are of the heaviest-producing species but also because these trees are being propagated in their natural habitat.

As the jungle was pushed back, crushed stone roads and streets were laid out, approximately 5 miles of railroad built and a saw-mill—freighted in pieces from Dearborn—turned the trees felled by the clearing squads into lumber for the dormitories, mess halls, warehouse, blacksmith and carpenter shops, and homes for officials. A power house and a deep-water dock were among the first tasks of the engineers.



Courtesy of the Ford Motor Co.

#### THE SCHOOL HOUSE

The first unit of the modern school has several hundred pupils enrolled under competent instructors.

The power house is a large steel and concrete building containing four 290-horsepower boilers in addition to a battery of generators, a fire pump with a capacity of 1,500 gallons of water a minute, and a refrigerating plant with a capacity of 10 tons of ice daily.

Another large building of steel and concrete construction houses a machine shop on the first floor and sawmill above. In the machine shop many of the small tools used on the plantation are made or kept in condition. The sawmill has a capacity of 90,000 feet a day. Elsewhere are blacksmith and carpenter shops, dry kilns, a warehouse, etc. A railroad facilitates the movement of the heavier freight and raw materials, and will be extended as the plantation is developed.

Gradually but rapidly the first hastily erected buildings have been replaced by more modern, substantial and, in the case of living

quarters, more comfortable structures. Typically tropical in style, the buildings are only one story in height and rest on concrete foundations. The dormitories accommodate 52 men each. The small houses for married men number 125; plans contemplate the ultimate construction of an increased number of these houses, each accommodating a separate family. In addition there are a number of 2-family houses and nine residences for staff members. All dwellings are supplied with power, light, ice, and excellent filtered drinking water.

The growth of the plantation population thus far has been amazing. On December 1, workers directly employed by the Ford Co. numbered 1,300, while 1,450 more were engaged in labor for contractors of the company. The population of the community was close to 4,000 persons.

Before the first clearing was started, the medical and sanitary department had planned its campaign against tropical fevers and pestilence. The most modern filtration plant equipment obtainable and supplies for a fully equipped hospital bulked large in the first cargoes freighted to the site direct from Dearborn, Mich., in the Ford-owned ships, the *Lake Ormoc* and the *Lake Farge*. To-day Boa Vista is probably as free from malaria and other tropical scourges as any American city. The small temporary hospital, one of the first buildings erected, has since been replaced by a steel and concrete structure which has the most modern facilities and conveniences. Supplementing the hospital service is an intensive prevention program. Rigid physical examinations of the workers and the enforcement of a strict sanitary code have contributed immeasurably to the elimination of malaria and hookworm.

Prior to the coming of Ford the inhabitants in the vicinity of the plantation subsisted mainly on a diet of fried fish, dried meat, and "farinha" meal. To-day the standard of health among the workers is attributed in large measure to their improved manner of living, their healthful surroundings, and the inclusion of vegetables, fresh meat, and wholesome bread in their diet.

Foreseeing a future plantation population of from 6,000 to 10,000 persons, the engineers very early drew plans for schools and an entire town amply provided with parks, playgrounds, community recreation halls, and clubhouses, such as are generally regarded as outstanding features of modern small-city planning. Beautification of the city is also under way. Rapid progress is being made in the planting of trees to adorn the streets and the grading and development of lawns about the houses. Palms, eucalyptus, rubber, and mango trees now line most of the streets. An ornamental lighting system is being installed.

That the development of this plan is progressing steadily is shown by the recent completion and opening of the central unit of a modern school. In its two classrooms several hundred of Boa Vista's children, ranging from 5 to 16 years of age, are enrolled under competent teachers. Few of these children had had previous schooling and others but scant instruction. Not to be outdone by their offspring, parents avail themselves of the opportunity to study in night classes. When the growth of Boa Vista warrants, additions are to be made to the present buildings.



Courtesy of the Ford Motor Co.

#### RUBBER TREES IN NURSERY

Plants from carefully selected seeds are cultivated in nurseries, sheltered by the surrounding tropical forest growth, until they are three months old. They are then transplanted to the cleared terraces.

Shops are now in charge of carefully selected concessionaries who sell foodstuffs, clothing, shoes, furniture, and other necessities to the people of the community. All goods sold are inspected as to quality by company representatives. Those employees who prefer to buy their supplies from boatmen patronize the riverside markets. Incidentally, it may be added that the workmen are paid their wages in cash.

One of the first and most important commercial products of the plantation, pending the production of rubber in commercial quantities, is tropical hardwoods, which the Ford Co. recently began to import into the United States for utilization in building and marine construction, furniture manufacture, and cabinetmaking. These



woods are being marketed in the United States by a national distributing organization.

Some of the hardwoods lumbered on the plantation are of rare species, and offer in their indescribably beautiful grain and coloring a new medium of expression in furniture manufacture, cabinetmaking, and interior decoration. The existence of some of these woods has been known to American industry, but the development of this market by the Ford Co. assures for the first time a dependable supply. The staff houses at Boa Vista to-day contain woods which are more



Courtesy of the Ford Motor Co.

#### SIXTEEN-MONTH OLD TREES

The young trees are removed to the open plantation where the rolling hillsides are terraced to prevent erosion by heavy rains. In 1936 the first planting of 100,000 trees will be ready for tapping.

beautiful than many used in the choicest samples of present American cabinet work.

Soon after the clearing was started Ford specialists began to investigate the possibilities of the commercial use of these woods. Almost four years of experimental work by the Ford Motor Co., both in Dearborn, Mich., and on the Ford Brazilian plantation, preceded the first shipment. Exhaustive scientific inquiries into the qualities of the various woods were conducted. They were tested for relative weight, strength, hardness, moisture content, resistance to deterioration, adaptability to interior trim, veneering and cabinetmaking, and also for their ability to take glue, stains, wax, and varnish finishes.



These experiments, recently completed, revealed that these new woods were readily adaptable to processing and in many respects were superior to domestic materials for the entire field of fine cabinet work. Moreover, it was discovered that while northern woods were unable to withstand the climate of the Tropics and would deteriorate from dry rot, sometimes within a year, the Brazilian products would resist rot, even in the tropical climate, for extremely long periods.

Most of the woods already exploited on the Ford plantation range in weight from 28 to 56 pounds per cubic foot. Another, of the balsa type, weighs less than 7 pounds per cubic foot. Woods of this latter kind are expected to prove of great utility in soundproofing and insulation.

The first commercial use of these woods on a large scale was made recently in the new Ford service branch at Alexandria, Va., where the lobbies and offices are paneled in *andiropa* and *castanheira*, two of the most beautiful of these rare woods. Furniture manufacturers also are already constructing sample pieces out of these and other woods, and it is expected that before long a widespread market for them will be developed.

One of the most important structures at Boa Vista is the receiving building, located adjacent to the deep-water dock. It is built of steel, concrete, and brick in that permanent fashion characteristic of Ford plantation structures. In it is maintained constantly a huge stock of supplies. Literally hundreds of articles may be found in its bins, on its shelves, or stored on its floors. A study of this stock is conducive to a much broader understanding of the scope of the undertaking. Everything required for the maintenance of the population of 4,000 persons may be found there. In addition, there are building and electrical supplies, machinery and tools of every kind, parts for sawmills, drying kilns, plumbing equipment, and furnishings for office, school, hospital, and other departments, as well as the equipment necessary to the efficient operation of the plantation's railroad, numerous automobiles, tractors, trucks, and boats. Most of these supplies are purchased in Belem. Obviously, this not only benefits the merchants but gives additional work to those in their employ.

Moreover, the Ford Co. maintains in Belem the offices through which the plantation, 600 miles distant, keeps in contact with the outside world and conducts its business. These offices are in charge of a local manager who occupies a residence purchased for the use of staff employees.

It will be seen, therefore, that the project at Boa Vista is based upon strict adherence to a world-wide Ford policy that the company be as intensely national within each country as the resources of that coun-

try will permit. Throughout the world it is contributing to the development of many countries, as it is in Brazil, by drawing upon their natural resources or products for its material supply.

In the case of northern Brazil that great natural resource is rubber. Its potentialities are tremendous. It is earnestly to be hoped that the determination of Mr. Ford to produce rubber in America, the development of the great plantation at Boa Vista, and the tremendously stimulating effect that undertaking should have will result in the redemption of the Amazon rubber industry and its restoration to a scale befitting the place Brazil occupies among the nations of the world.



PRIMITIVE METHOD OF CURING RUBBER

The sap, or latex, gathered from the tapped trees is brought to a central point for curing. The smoke from a fire is directed upward through a metal cone to a pole on which the latex is poured slowly while the pole is turned. The latex hardens almost immediately and as more is added the mass grows into a ball. The ball of crude rubber, ready for shipment, is removed from the pole when the desired size is obtained.

# BOLIVIA SPEAKS IN THE ART OF ANTONIO SOTOMAYOR

By JEHANNE BIÉTRY SALINGER

WHEN Antonio Sotomayor, of Bolivia, heretofore best known on the Pacific coast as a brilliant cartoonist and illustrator of books having to do with the history and archæology of Latin America, held his recent one-man show of water colors at the California Palace of the Legion of Honor in San Francisco, a most significant parallel with a great Mexican precedent was brought out.<sup>1</sup>

From 13 or 15 years of European life, and close association with the modern movements of art in France, Spain, and Germany emerged a thoroughly Mexican artist in the person of Diego Rivera. After having returned to his country, following his travels and æsthetic wanderings, Rivera was suddenly awakened to the vital significance of his native background, and set out to interpret it in terms of art.

After nine years spent in the United States, in contact with a machine-made life as we know it in North America, Antonio Sotomayor, turning away from the dry formulæ of abstract modern art as an end in itself, and spurning the easy road of picturesqueness and sentimentalism, has created anew, in his water-color paintings, the very texture of Bolivia, by his presentation of Indian types and of the spirit of the Indian.

Hung on the beautiful walls of this great museum there were the earthy figures of "stony" Indians in the primordial environment of earth and stone of their native Andes, these figures being part of a larger design, of a broader rhythm, in the human as well as in the æsthetic sense.

Under their stiff, glossy panama bowlers that look like fanciful derby hats, the Chola *Laundresses* chat and wash; their faces are like those of archaic images, and behind them stand the peaks of the immutable Andes.

In another painting are four Indians in *A Group*. Are these stolid faces with almost Asiatic eyes, elongated and half closed, those of men or women? Are these creatures talking or just whispering? Or are they a mere part of the slow rhythm of the earth to which they seem to belong bodily as well as spiritually?

How pompous and humorous, in their pleated skirts, are these *Dancers* getting ready for a festival. How solemn the child holding the monumental headdress of azure blue decorated with dainty roses!

<sup>1</sup> Any inquiries concerning Señor Sotomayor's work may be addressed to the Courvoisier Galleries, 480 Post Street, San Francisco.





Courtesy of the Courvoisier Galleries

"PLAZA"



Courtesy of the Courvoisier Galleries. Collection of Mrs. John S. Wood

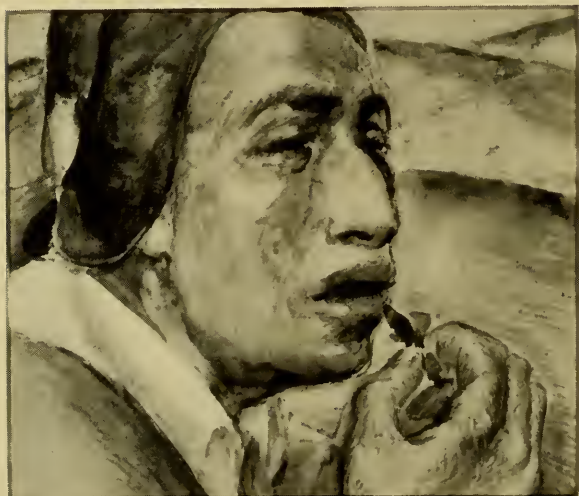
"ANDEAN MARKET"

In these two water colors Sotomayor's power of interpreting the spirit of the Bolivian Indian is clearly shown.

What is this descendant of the race of the Incas thinking, in his religious ecstasy before a *Crucifix* which brings tears to his eyes? Is it the man-God Christ he is worshipping, or a complex image of the visible God-Sun?

To whom is addressed the ardent supplication of this Indian kneeling, bareheaded, his arms outstretched, his hands lifted toward the sky, in the brush drawing entitled "*Prayer*"?

Antonio Sotomayor has disdainfully abandoned all that which might make an appeal to the superficial or sentimental admirer of Latin America. He has plunged himself wholly into the spirit of his native Bolivia. In these water colors which several thousands of people came to view at the California Palace of the Legion of Honor in San Francisco he has done for this country what the Peruvian



"COCA"

The Bolivian Indian often stays himself on long marches by chewing coca leaves which enable him to do with very little food.

Courtesy of the Courvoisier Galleries. Collection of Mrs. John S. Wood

Santos Chocano did for the poetry of Peru. Feeling that the vital issues in Bolivia, as in many countries of Latin America, have often been exploited for superficial purposes, and that the pro-Indian movement has been taken chiefly as a political banner rather than made a vital spring of cultural inspiration and development, the artist is wholly responsive to the Indian vital element of life in Bolivia. He feels himself one with his background.

Born on May 13, 1904, in the Indian town of Chulumani, Department of La Paz, he was brought up in a pure Aymara environment. The Indian customs, the Indian temperament, the Indian spirit have become part of his own complex. True, he acquired in youth from his Belgian master, Adolphe Lambert, at the School of Fine Arts which he attended in La Paz, a European technique of painting. True, here and there one discovers traces of Franco-Belgian influence



Courtesy of the Courvoisier Galleries. Collection of Mrs. John S. Wood

"THE DANCERS"

A group making preparations for a ceremonial dance.

in design and in compositional arrangement. In his *Market Plaza*, for instance, one is perhaps too strongly reminded of a Flemish *béguinage*, but this constitutes an enrichment of his æsthetic vocabulary, just as in other cases the Thibetan atmosphere and Mongolian features of some of his types remind one of Nicholas Roerich. Nothing of this detracts from his inspiration, based directly on the ancient traditions of Bolivia which have been kept almost pure by a large part of the population, and not on ineffectual, imported ideas which are wholly alien to the Indian nativeness of his artistic impulse.

Antonio Sotomayor tells us that from his early childhood he was impressed by the Indians with whom he associated daily. The memories he has retained have so entered into his subconscious being that, after many years spent in a typical United States environment, the impressions made on his mind and on his heart when he was a child in the tropical town of Chulumani have suddenly come to life within the last two years. Like the ancient treasures of the Incas which are brought to light again in the fields of both archæology and literature, these pious memories have come to life under the brush of this Bolivian aquarellist.



Paul Morand and Waldo Frank can tell us of life in the Andes, can leave us strongly moved by the lyrical beauty of their evocation; but Antonio Sotomayor brings us to the "human stones" of the Andes at first hand.

Painted amidst the gems of tropical colors enchased with the sapphire of little rivers, with the warm sienna tones of rocks, with the blues, the yellows, and the pinks of their picturesque costumes, and enshrined in his devotion, are the Aymaras whom the artist understands and loves.

Sotomayor is not like D. H. Lawrence, who perceived through his subtle intuitive powers the gigantic civilization of the Americas and its mysterious all-enwrapping influence. He is one with that country of Indian traditions. His birth in the Andes; the grotesque dances of the Aymaras, in which the "repressed temperament" of these people finds an outlet . . . all this is part of himself. He is one with it all. The Indian under a purple Phrygian bonnet, about to chew a green leaf of coca, is not a literary or a philosophical comment made by an outsider; he is flesh and bones an Indian. The sensuous nostrils and mouth are not an analysis, they are that which makes of the art of Antonio Sotomayor what it is: Bolivia; Bolivia felt through the æsthetic sense of one of her sons; Bolivia alive in art, in this art.



Courtesy of the Courvoisier Galleries

"PRAYER"

# GUATEMALA A NEW OBJECTIVE FOR TOURISTS

By CAMERON ROGERS

*Editor of The Grace Log*

JUST as the country of one's accustomed habitation usually seems to one to be the least glamorous of all lands, so is the promise of the horizon usually deceptive. The fact, however, that beyond the blue rim of one's visible world exists another frequently no more nor less exciting than one's own discourages not the traveler, nor ever will. For there is always one country to be come to which will be rich and strange, one Cathay for every unofficial Marco Polo of to-day who goes down to the sea at the beck of tall ships and an unfamiliar road.

Guatemala is such a country. The largest of the Central American Republics, it is to me at once the most varied in appeal and the most persuasive in atmosphere. To man's visual sense it offers so catholic an aggregation of impressions that I question whether any other Republic in this hemisphere has been more richly endowed by nature. Littoral, jungle land, upland, and cordillera are such that, encountered singly, each would awaken appreciative response; and met with all in one day and in one country, they overwhelm the traveler with an orchestration of beauties which can not be forgotten.

Guatemala was conquered 400 years ago by Don Pedro de Alvarado,<sup>1</sup> a lieutenant of Cortés, the great Marquis of the Valley of Oaxaca. Don Pedro found it, as do we, a gracious country in every season, a generous, fecund land in which his worn and hungry veterans experienced no difficulty in finding sustenance and shelter. It is not likely, however, that Alvarado, any more than Pizarro in the unearthly grandeur of the Peruvian montaña, sought to lift up his eyes unto the hills. He was far too busy slaughtering the embattled ancestors of those Quiché-Mayan peoples whose presence in Guatemala still delights us. Indeed, it is only of recent years that man has gone to Guatemala merely to admire, but to-day this motive has very definitely emerged as being in many ways the most valid of all travel objectives in the west.

Let us make it ours. We may land either on the east at Puerto Barrios from the boats of the United Fruit Co., or on the west at

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<sup>1</sup> See "Guatemala and Don Pedro de Alvarado," by Lily Aguirre de Brewer, in *Bulletin of the Pan American Union* for July, 1931.



MODERN ASPECTS OF GUATEMALA CITY

Upper: Central Park. Lower: Roof garden, Palace Hotel.

Champerico or San Jose de Guatemala.<sup>2</sup> The Grace Line's Panama mail ships east or west bound between New York and California touch at both western ports and conduct 2-day tours to the capital, but two days serve only to whet our appetite. Coming ashore on the western coast over topaz shallows, with jungle green in our eyes and an azure cloudland in the east, which hints at peaks quite foreign to our native mountains, we shall require a week at least to savor Guatemala. The capital of the Republic is four hours away by train, eastward and upward, on a plateau some 5,000 feet above sea level. This area of the earth's surface is blessed with what is probably the narrowest thermal range in the world. The highest temperature in the city of Guatemala, experienced in April and May, is 68° F., the lowest, recorded in December and January, is 61° F. Gazing from our parlor car at solid walls of vegetation—banana plants and coffee trees, vines thick as a man's wrist, and all the incredibly lusty growths of a tropical plain—such temperatures seem impossible.

But we are climbing. The genial Indian<sup>3</sup> families garbed in casually arranged cotton garments are left behind. Without warning, we are quit of the Tropics. Our train climbs now between the smooth shapes of hills clad sparingly with vegetation, or cleared and cultivated to the last foot of their steep slopes by Indians of a different blood, bundled in clothing of a weight familiar to us who come from the temperate zone. As we near the capital, the sky in one quarter is suddenly blocked out. I have heard many travelers exclaim with pleasure at the first glimpse of the silver and turquoise which is Lake Amatitlan, but the vision of those twin immensities, Agua and Fuego, interminably soaring into the heavens, like clouds solidified, is a spectacle which begets the silence of true awe. Of perfect volcanic shape, these colossi dominate earth and air. They are the sentinels of this land; north and south of them march their fellows, cone after purple cone in goodly ranks, astounding the eye wherever the traveler may be.

Our train allows only a brief look at the mountains. It slides into the station of the capital, and the air, thinner than that which we have been breathing these past weeks, quickens the blood, stirring it to a new activity.

There are several excellent hotels in Guatemala City, but of them all I prefer the Palace, partly because it is the sort of place one associates with capitals, partly because at cocktail time one sees there the bustle of an entrancing Peacock Alley, partly because its marimba band and Mayan musicians drag at my heart with melodies indigenous only to their magic country, and very largely because Jorge Herrera,

<sup>2</sup> The Foreign Trade Adviser of the Pan American Union will be pleased to supply additional information.

<sup>3</sup> See "The Guatemalan Indians," by Lilly de Jongh Osborne, in *Bulletin of the Pan American Union* for September, 1932.



its owner, knows his Guatemala, loves it, and will talk of it in terms which should be vouchsafed not alone to listeners but to readers. Its food is exceptional, its drink beyond criticism, and its coffee, to my mind, without a peer in the world. But we have not come here to stay inside a hotel, however excellent. Let us consider the city itself.

This is the capital of the third foundation, for its predecessors, Cuidad Vieja and Antigua, situated about 30 miles away, were, after the ravages of volcanic eruptions, considered with justice dangerously located. A city of 120,000 people, of shaded plazas, clean streets, and houses dazzling white in sunlight, its purlieus are those



CHURCH OF THE CERRO DEL CARMEN, GUATEMALA

At the gate of the church there hangs in a small frame this description in Spanish, cut from an old book: "In a word, this place of grace and blessing has a certain air so majestic, devout and awe-inspiring that every one who enters observes that its very spirit is born in him."

of any capital, but its golf club, its flying field, race course, and modern theaters can not destroy the atmosphere of ancient and historic charm. In the Mercado, which is the largest open-air market in Central America, Indians of Quiché-Mayan stock squat with perfect detachment behind their heaps of fruit and vegetables or delicately perfect pottery, basketwork or textiles; the massed color of their garments, the primitive arrogance of their gestures, abash the twentieth century about them. The churches, too, are on the side of the past. Those of the Cerro del Carmen, La Merced, and Santo Domingo have little to do with modernity. Like the Faith they house, they are ageless; if a secular influence impinges at all upon their claustral and beautiful quietude, it is one with that of two





IN ANTIGUA, FORMER CAPITAL OF GUATEMALA

The stately palace of the Captains General of Guatemala, erected in 1526, is set beneath great volcanoes.

centuries ago. For the Indians, their charges, have not changed. A machine age has not touched them. As through centuries, they carry their worldly problems, their solitudes touching crops and everyday misfortunes, into the cool, incense-heavy shadows of these retreats to which the clamor of street and motor cars and other bewildering horrors can not penetrate.

After two or three days in the capital, we enlist the services of that eminent Guatemalan-American, Don Alfredo Clark, whose motor tours of the Quiché-Mayan country are justly famous from the Gulf of Honduras to the Pacific. In one of his admirable cars we quit Guatemala City by the Guarda Viejo Boulevard and pass through Mixco and San Rafael, pleasant hill villages both, to Antigua, that sleeping city founded in 1542 and known for two centuries by the title bestowed upon it by Charles the Fifth, *La Muy Noble y Muy Leal Ciudad de Santiago de los Caballeros de Guatemala*. And, truly, before Fuego's last terrible expression of its volcanic nature 200 years ago, Antigua was worthy of its designation as the Very Noble and Very Loyal City of Saint James of the Knights, of Guatemala. Without a peer between Mexico and Panama, it was a place of bells ringing continually in the sunlight, of religious processions moving daily between noble convents, monasteries, and churches, of soldiers and

cavaliers swaggering in plaza arches, of Indians garbed colorfully according to their village canons, of Spanish ladies passing upon their own gracious business surrounded by retinues of native servants.

It was the city of Antigua, Guatemala, one of those many "wonders of the west" to which sailors in Lisbon, Cadiz, and La Coruña referred over leathern wine cups, claiming that it had streets of gold and houses wrought from jasper. To-day, we explore the noble ruins of the great Capuchin Monastery, inhabited now by Indians who sit weaving their patterned stuffs in vaulted corridors and stone refec-

tories, which bear eloquent testimony to the wealth of the great order which built them, and visit the remains of other majestic edifices. Thus we can without effort reconstruct the capital of two centuries ago, with its university honored throughout the Americas, its five-score holy structures, and its 80,000 people, where barely 10,000 live to-day.

The traveler lunching at the creditable Hotel Manchen has much upon which to reflect if he knows his history of the Spanish Conquest in Central America, but even if Alvarado's name is only vaguely familiar to him and that of his wife quite unknown, he will still admire the vast palace of the captains general of Guatemala, the serene churches of the Escuela de Cristo and La Merced, with its beautiful Murillo, the cathedral, and the Calvario. Most moving of all, perhaps, is the near-by site of that first city, Ciudad Vieja, marked now only by the Church of San Juan el Obispo, one of the oldest churches in the New World. Here it was that Doña Beatriz de la Cueva, Alvarado's widow, perished with her ladies of honor in the flood that poured down the slopes of Agua one dark



AN INDIAN WOMAN  
CARRYING WATER

To the initiated, the pattern of this woman's hand-woven blouse, or "huipil," tells the town where she lives.

night in September, 1541. Well did she call herself "Doña Beatriz the Unfortunate" when she signed her commission as governor three days before.

We quit Antigua reluctantly, lest some corner compact of tragic romance has escaped attention, yet with something, too, of relief. For this little living town within the storied shell of a city once considerable, bannered and gay with circumstance, but now almost one with Troy, somehow casts down the soul on too long an acquaintance.

Over an adventurous mountain road, through San Antonio and San Felipe (the latter a place of miraculous cures wrought by the grace of God vested in the image of *El Señor Sepultado*), Spanish and saintly in name but pure Indian in character, through Pastores, Chi-



Photograph by Thomas F. Lee

#### SOLALÁ, HIGH ABOVE LAKE ATITLÁN

Many interesting Indian ceremonies may be seen in this town on festival days. Its church has an altar of repoussé silver, probably dating from colonial times. Around the beautiful lake are set 12 Indian villages, named for the Apostles.

maltenango, Zaragoza, Patzicia, and Patzum, we come to Godinez through one of the richest coffee regions in the world. On the Chimaltenango flats the maize ripples like the sea from horizon to horizon, wheat surges on the great Patzum Plateau, and always the conic symmetries of volcanoes, gun-metal blue against a paler sky, draw the eye upward and with it the soul. At Godinez we look down 2,000 feet at the waters of Atitlan, a lake of colors shifting from blue to green, guarded by those same volcanoes and edged with Kakchiquel villages, San Antonio Palopo, Tzanjuyu, Panajachel, and 12 hamlets named after the Apostles.

Three different Indian tribes inhabit the shores of Atitlan. The Tzutuhil are lords in Santiago de Atitlan, San Pedro, where the sisal rope is wound, and San Juan la Laguna. In San Marcos and San Pablo the Mayans live; and in San Antonio and Santa Catalina Palopo the Kakchiquels, privileged among all tribes because they allied themselves with Don Pedro de Alvarado 400 years ago, are preeminent. In Santiago de Atitlan the Indian women wear memorable costumes colorful as tulips, and in Santa Catalina Palopo they kneel all day weaving mats of the reeds gathered on the lake shore.

The great market at Solola, whither we go on quitting Tzanjuyu, brings us into the heart of preconquest Guatemala. The road climbs 4 or 5 miles from Lake Atitlan by dizzy turns and along precipices.



In the market 3,000 Indians stand, sit, or move in groups oblivious of us as of all whites. Alvarado conquered and slaughtered their fathers and Landa burnt the priceless chronicles of their origin and existence in an empire; but all that was long ago. A free, proud, silent people, they preserve the tragedy of their dissolution; as a great race encysted in hereditary fatalism they care not whether we go or stay. In Santo Tomas Chichicastenango the Mayans, whose ancestors subjugated every tribe in the land, and from their stone cities standing guard



#### COFFEE PICKING

Coffee is Guatemala's chief product and export.

Courtesy of Schlubach, Sapper & Co.

over ravine and valley disputed every inch of Don Pedro's bloody advance, live as they did before Tonatiuh<sup>3</sup> ever dreamt of their existence. In church and convent they repeat pagan prayers to Christian saints, seeing in pictured haloes the effulgence of that sun which their forbears worshipped; their offertories of tiny candles and scattered rose leaves are made to very ancient gods risen anew, on the word of the friars, in the likenesses of tonsured Castilians and Our Lady painted after the school of Murillo.

In Santo Tomas Chichicastenango, within and without a convent raised in 1542, Mayans are their own masters, living by their own

<sup>3</sup>A name, meaning "Sun God", by which Alvarado was generally known among the Indians.

rules. The youth of the village bow and kiss the gnarled brown fists of their elders and with perfect courtesy treat the white stranger as a friend but not as one in whom to confide. Afield in Totonicapan, where lovely pottery is made, and at Momostenango of the great stalactites, our hearts are constantly touched by the serene and noble presence of this people. Too poor they may be even to sow and reap the maize, but they will not cringe. Gentlemen in their own land and in their own right, they may consent in San Andres or Joyabaj to trade a gorgeous woven bag or a woman's huipil, a garment like a sunset, for a little silver, but the solicitation must be ours. At Utatlan, where stand the ruins of the palace of that Mayan ruler who was lied to, betrayed, and foully murdered by Alvarado, the white man might well walk in shame for his race. But he looks around him and sees only indifference in the eyes of his Indian hosts. They can no longer be hurt. They were never really conquered and now they never shall be.

It is from the Mayan Inn at Santo Tomas Chichicastenango that all this land is tapped. One of the best administered and most strategically located hotels south of the city of Mexico, this inn is a trove for travelers. When we turn again toward the capital and through Chichoy pass 10,500 feet above the sea, rejoining the road to the capital at Patzún, we have seen the real Guatemala. And our last glimpse of it shows us Tecpan, the Kakchiquel capital of Iximche, sleeping in a golden pocket the sleep of old, old age.

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# “THE RICH COAST”

By JOHN M. KEITH

COSTA RICA was first brought to the knowledge of the Old World by Christopher Columbus, who discovered the country on his fourth voyage, landing at Cariai, known to-day as Puerto Limon. So amazed were the discoverers by the wonderful fertility of the soil, which seemed to produce every conceivable variety of vegetation in the greatest possible profusion, that they then and there named the new land “Costa Rica,” or “Rich Coast.” Many years passed before the exploring Spaniards were able to penetrate the dense jungle which covered Costa Rica from sea to sea and find, to their further surprise, that it was, in truth, one of the richest of all the Spanish King’s newly acquired possessions.

At first the Spaniards did not realize that Costa Rica’s real wealth lay in its agricultural development; instead, they were mainly attracted, as in all their other possessions in Latin America, by the gold which was being mined in great abundance by the native Indians.

In fact, so amazed were the discoverers by the vast amount of gold in the possession of the Indians that many prominent Spaniards emigrated from Spain with their entire families and all their servants. In strong contrast with Spanish methods of colonization in other countries, these immigrants did not intermarry with the natives but kept strictly to themselves. Consequently, the majority of Costa Ricans to-day are white with not the slightest trace of Indian blood.

To the foreigner—that is, to the American or European—this may come as a distinct surprise, but he will be even more amazed when, on visiting Costa Rica, he finds that fully half of the pretty girls in the capital are blondes with golden hair and the rosiest of cheeks.

The two chief ports of Costa Rica are Puerto Limon on the Atlantic coast and Puntarenas on the Pacific side. From the former are exported the countless millions of bunches of bananas which yearly go to the United States and Europe to give their peoples a delicious taste of the Tropics. Much coffee and cacao and many other national products also pass through this port. Scattered around Limon and its palm-fringed bay are most of the banana plantations of the United Fruit Co., which has imported from Jamaica and other West Indian islands thousands of British negroes to work on its plantations. These negroes give a picturesque touch to their surroundings, but it should be remembered that they are not natives of Costa Rica and one day they will probably all return to their own island homes.



Courtesy of John M. Keith

# SAN JOSÉ, THE CAPITAL OF COSTA RICA

A general view of the city, showing its beautiful setting.

Colored people are but rarely seen in San Jose or higher up the railroad line than Turrialba, the center of an important coffee and banana district.

Puntarenas, on the other side of the country, is built on a spit of sand reaching far out into the Gulf of Nicoya. It is a popular sea-bathing resort for the people of San Jose, who annually visit it in their thousands. It possesses a very fine steel pier which serves the big passenger and freight steamers regularly calling at the port, the former with their quotas of tourists and the latter to take away their valuable cargoes of some of the best coffee in the world.

Both Limon and Puntarenas are connected with the capital by very fine railroad systems, respectively 102 and 72 miles long. That from Limon is a marvel of engineering, the track winding its way along the edges of precipices a thousand feet deep, at the bottom of which the Reventazon River may be seen as a thin white ribbon threading its way torrentially to the coast. The track crosses countless bridges poised over what seem to be bottomless clefts between the mountains, and the passenger going over the line for the first time will hold his breath several times before he reaches San Jose. The line from Puntarenas to San Jose is electrified; gigantic smooth-running electric locomotives haul their heavy loads from the coast up to the mountain tops with amazing ease.

After the picturesque trip from either port the traveler arrives in San Jose, nearly 4,000 feet above sea level. It is an attractive city

of more than 56,000 inhabitants, who take a personal pride in the capital and its progress. Its fine paved streets, theaters, hotels, shops, parks, clubs, and public buildings must all be discovered by the tourist himself when he visits Costa Rica.

It has well been said that "San Jose is an interesting city. It has a museum containing a priceless collection of Central American pottery; a collection of Maya gold idols as fascinating as anything from Etruria; a theater that cost a million dollars and really looks it; and a new hotel which will delight you."

In the evenings, when the day's work is over, all the younger people of both sexes make it a point to attend the band concerts, or *retretas* as they are called, in the public parks. A first-class band plays delightful music while the young men and maidens amuse themselves by parading round and round the park and engaging in innocent flirtations.

On Sunday the bulk of the population goes to church in the morning, while the afternoon is given over to sport and excursions into the country. In the evenings the whole world patronizes the theater and the cinemas, where the very latest talking pictures are to be seen. After the theater, the clubs and hotels are filled to overflowing as the *Josefinos*, as the people of San Jose are affectionately called, exchange gossip and greetings over their refreshments. All in all, there is a delightfully lazy and enjoyable life completely free from the hustle and bustle which is the bane of the big cities of North America and Europe.

The antiprohibitionist will find that there is no ban on strong drinks in Costa Rica, but in spite of this there is very little drunkenness, a testimonial to the moderation of the people.

Glancing briefly at the geography of Costa Rica, we find that it is situated in the Tropics, between 8° and 11° 14' north latitude, and is bounded on the north by Nicaragua, on the south by Panama. The eastern shore is washed by the Caribbean Sea and the western by the Pacific. It comprises some 59,570 square kilometers, being more or less the size of the States of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island. In this area live about half a million souls, but the country is capable of sustaining probably not less than seven millions.

If it were possible to take a cross-section of Costa Rica from coast to coast it would be seen that the low-lying plains of the coastal regions soon give way to rapidly rising mountains which, in places, reach a height of 14,000 feet. These high mountains are, of course, part of America's Andine backbone, which runs northward unbroken to join the Rockies.

In the lowlands the usual high temperatures of the Tropics are naturally prevalent, but as one advances into the interior, with the





Courtesy of John M. Keith

THE NATIONAL THEATER, SAN JOSE



Courtesy of John M. Keith

CLUB UNIÓN, SAN JOSE



NATIONAL TELEGRAPH AND POST OFFICE, SAN JOSÉ



elevation rapidly increasing, the temperature falls considerably so that by the time the central plateau is reached the climate is most moderate and pleasant; in fact, it may be compared with late spring in the temperate zone. This condition is more or less constant; the variation in temperature over the whole year at San Jose, the capital, runs between 50° F. and 70° F., with an occasional hot day reaching 80° F. or 85° F. Thus, contrary to the northerner's idea of customs in the Tropics, the Costa Rican does not run around in a white suit, perspiring visibly the whole day through; instead, he dresses in the same kind of suitings as the North American or Englishman back home and often finds an overcoat a welcome addition in the evenings. The reader, if he plans to visit Costa Rica, should take this as a warning and not leave his heavy clothing behind. White tropical suits and palm-beach clothing are definitely out of place in the highlands of Costa Rica. Not infrequently, American and European tourists, in the belief that in the Tropics all is hot from the seacoast to the snow line, visit San Jose wearing the white clothes and African helmets that might be very useful on the coast but which, in the capital, only serve to draw from street urchins such derisive inquiries as “How many lions have you shot to-day, Mister?” As the evening draws on these white-clad tourists begin to shiver and end by running around trying to beg, borrow, or steal an overcoat.

Here it is worth mentioning that at the many popular dances and other social functions which are a feature of Costa Rican life the Tuxedo or “smoking” suit is often *de rigueur*. It is therefore advisable for all men who intend to stay in Costa Rica for more than a week to bring their black clothes with them, because they will find that society is very hospitable, and for this reason they will have plenty of opportunity to dress for dinner in the same way as at home.

It should not be imagined from the foregoing remarks that all social life in San Jose is formal. On the contrary, there are many delightful informal gatherings where enjoyment reigns without any adherence to stiff conventions.

Hunting and horseback-riding may be said to be the favorite pastimes of the foreigners resident in Costa Rica. Many and pleasant are the excursions frequently made by residents or visitors to such scenic spots as Aserri and Orosi and to the Irazu and Poas volcanoes.

The trip to the latter is one of the most interesting and thrilling experiences one can imagine. Parties are usually made up of 20 or 30 people of both sexes. The ride up the mountain generally starts from San Jose about midnight, when the moon is full. The young women carry guitars, and all the way up the winding trail, one minute in the brilliant moonlight, the next in a dark valley, as the party passes over



STEAM RISING FROM THE POÁS VOLCANO

An excursion to the top of Poás, 7,400 feet high, is enjoyed by visitors to Costa Rica.

precipitous and tortuous trails, one hears the echo of the songs and laughter of those in front. Sometimes it happens that the horse of a young lady becomes tired and there is no lack of chivalrous offers from the willing men who resign themselves to walking for a while.

Arriving at the volcano about 5 in the morning is truly a wonderful experience. At this altitude of 10,000 feet above sea level there is a valley sparkling with frost, really the bed of an old crater, filled with fantastic black shapes which are the remains of an old forest. Passing over this depression one arrives at the brink of the crater. The view baffles description—a mighty yawning circle, a mile or more in diameter, a quarter of a mile deep, devoid of every vestige of vegetation, lined with cold grey rocks and massive boulders, and away at the bottom a murky, steaming lake of sulphurous mud which ever and anon bubbles up and vomits into the cold motionless air immense

volumes of steam and gas, truly the world's largest and most imposing geyser, and one of the world's finest sights.

But this is not all. Before the morning clouds descend and envelop the spectator in well-nigh impenetrable fog he should travel yet farther, for another mile or so, to the crater lagoon. This occupies an extinct crater about the same size as the active one; in the course of centuries its once arid walls have become covered with dense green jungle. The waters are crystal clear, because of the sulphur they contain, and the lake itself, reflecting the clear blue of the sky overhead, appears like a rich sapphire in nature's own green setting.

Unfortunately, one can not linger as long as one would like to enjoy to the full the beauty of the spot, for the return has to be made. On arriving in town once more, although tired and dirty, one has a deep sense of satisfaction at having viewed the mighty Poas.

Other interesting regions worthy of a visit are the Orosi Valley and its coffee plantations, within comfortable riding distance of San Jose; Guanacaste, with its vast cattle pastures and cowboys, reminiscent of the “wild West” of the United States; the banana and cacao plantations of the Atlantic seaboard; the picturesque Gulf of Nicoya, studded with many beautiful islands, and Culebra Bay on the northwest coast.

Surrounding San Jose, and connected with it by fine paved highways along which automobile travel is a pleasure, are many interesting towns and cities of great antiquity. Chief of these are Cartago, from 1563 to 1823 the capital of Costa Rica; Alajuela, where the great cattle fairs are held weekly; Heredia and Tres Rios, two of the most important coffee centers; Naranjo and Grecia, in the district which produces the highest grades of sugar and pineapples; and San Isidro de Coronado, a favorite summer resort. Besides these there are countless smaller towns of great charm and peacefulness.

The hospitality of the Costa Ricans is proverbial throughout the world, but rather less is known of their other fine characteristics, such as their great love of music, painting, sculpture, literature, and all art in any form.

The Costa Ricans are among the most law-abiding people in the world. They are peace loving in every respect, as witness the fact that the country proudly boasts that it has more schools than soldiers under arms; not merely more *school teachers* than soldiers, but actually more *schools*. Of what other country can this be said? The few soldiers that Costa Rica has are mostly elderly men who can not perform hard work; they are maintained by the Government solely to keep a polish on the small armament which the present Government has inherited from its predecessors.

The police force is a well-trained body whose chief function is to act as a guard of honor for the reception of foreign diplomats and other important personages. Besides this, they maintain order in the streets. Serious crime is the exception, and it is only on very rare occasions that a murder or holdup claims the attention of the guardians of the peace.

Costa Rica, like all other countries, has its quota of mendicants, paupers, orphans, insane, and other unfortunates who have a claim on the charity of others. In this connection it is worth while mentioning that the nation does not fail in its duty. The Government and various charity organizations maintain many fine institutions for the care of the needy. Chief among these are the famous Chapui



ELEMENTARY PUBLIC SCHOOL, SAN JOSÉ

Costa Rica has more schools than soldiers.

hospital for the insane with a capacity of 500 patients (it may be added, incidentally, that it is pictured on one of Costa Rica's postage stamps); the hospital of San Juan de Dios, capable of caring for 1,100 patients at a time; the asylum for incurables; the home for the aged; orphanages for both boys and girls; the tuberculosis sanatorium high in the mountains; the Buen Pastor Institute for the gentle but strict correction of young girls and women; the permanent school farm for undernourished children; the Gota de Leche ("Drop of Milk") for the distribution of free milk to the babies of the poor, and the free kitchens for providing meals to the children of respectable parents who, through no fault of their own, are suffering from the present depression and are consequently unable to provide sufficient food for the proper nourishment of the youngsters. Besides the agencies



just mentioned there are free hospitals and similar institutions in every town and village with a population of over 2,000.

Needless to say, all of these institutions are run in a very efficient manner, staffed by the best of doctors and educational experts, many of whom gladly give their services free of charge.

The profits of the fortnightly national lottery and certain special import duties are set aside for the maintenance of the various charity organizations. Thus, the natural love of a chance in the lottery is turned to good account and the unlucky loser has the satisfaction of knowing that his lost dollar has gone to help the needy.

A word about Costa Rica's schools. They are practically all maintained by the Government. Free education being obligatory, this is one of the heaviest items in the nation's annual budget. All education is of the highest standard. Many boys graduated from Costa Rican high schools have been welcomed at American and European universities, where they have often gained the highest honors, particularly in the realms of medicine, engineering, architecture, law, and agriculture. The law college in San Jose is of high repute. Many foreign students come to take advantage of its courses, and also those of the normal school for teachers in the city of Heredia.

The education of girls is also on a very high plane. The Colegio para Señoritas and the Manuel Aragón Continuation School give special attention to commercial careers for girls. Some American parents living in the Canal Zone send their children to Sion Convent because of the excellent climate.

Sport goes hand in hand with education in Costa Rica. A love of football seems to be the natural heritage of the youth of the country. Many amateur teams have gained victories over the more seasoned players of other Latin American countries, and Costa Ricans are now generally considered the champions of Central America. Tennis, golf, swimming, running, baseball, etc., also have their place and are slowly but surely gaining in popularity. Every year a marathon is run over the railroad track between San Jose and Puntarenas, a distance of about 70 miles. The start is usually made at 3 in the afternoon. The first arrivals reach the coast between 5 and 6 the next morning after having run all through the night with the aid of an electric torch. The first prize for this race is only \$25 in cash, which is a minor matter for the winner compared with the honor of winning the medal which goes with it.

One of the wonders of Costa Rica is its flora. Flowers of every variety are found in profusion everywhere; almost every home, whether it be that of a rich coffee planter or of the humblest peon on his estate, has a wealth of flowers in its garden. Costa Rica has several hundred varieties of orchids, including some of the rarest





OROSI FALLS, COSTA RICA

"The waterfall was magnificent, and it was singularly impressive to come upon it in the midst of the solemn grandeur of the tropical forest. The drop was almost perpendicular over sheer rock faces and about 150 feet high."

known to man, and the orchid lover prepared to spend a few weeks in the country will find much to interest him. But not only tropical flowers grow in Costa Rica. Roses, lilies, and all the flowers of the Temperate Zone thrive in its mild climate. Strawberries, blackberries, mangoes, bananas, pineapples, alligator pears, papaws or papayas, melons, oranges, limes, lemons, and other rich and luscious fruits all grow side by side practically the year round in this country of perpetual spring. Full advantage of the natural floral wealth is

taken for weddings, which may truthfully be described as pageants of beauty and flowers.

Costa Rica is rich in wild life, and lovers of hunting will find plenty of game if they care to wander a short distance from San Jose. Among the more important wild animals are the jaguars, *tepesquintes*, tapirs, deer, rabbits, wild pigs, and monkeys. There is also a great variety of birds, most of them of brilliant plumage, notably parrots, macaws, toucans, hummingbirds, and wild turkeys.

A glance at the map discloses that Costa Rica is covered by a vast network of rivers; indeed it may truthfully be stated that there is not a single square mile of land which does not have a fair-sized stream running through it, thus making irrigation, where necessary, a very simple matter. Because of the great height of the mountains where the majority of the rivers have their source, water power is practically unlimited. An evidence of this is the fact that even the smallest and most remote of communities has its own electric installation, giving light and power at very small cost. There are practically no restrictions on the use of water power. The owner of land may make free and full use of the water passing through it, provided only that he does not interfere with a similar enjoyment on the part of his neighbors; that is, after serving as motive power, the water must be returned to its natural channel so that other persons can make similar use of it.

The potentialities of the country under wise schemes of development are apparent. With this in mind the Government offers the greatest facilities to desirable foreigners, especially to Anglo-Saxons, who wish to settle in the country. As a matter of fact, when many of the foreigners who are now established in the country originally came to Costa Rica their chief capital was no more than an earnest desire to work and make good; now they are wealthy and highly respected by the community. Such opportunities still exist for persons who are prepared to enter commercial or agricultural enterprises. There are still many millions of acres of uncultivated lands which promise to any person who has capital and is prepared to develop them with modern methods and machinery a fairly abundant return on his investment.

The majority of these idle lands, which can be acquired on surprisingly cheap and easy terms, are situated in the fertile valleys of El General, San Carlos, Sarapiquí, Santa Clara, etc. These regions are also extremely rich in all tropical hard and soft woods, such as cedar, ebony, *lignum-vitæ*, *pochote*, *cocobolo*, mahogany, and some 70 other varieties, which in themselves offer a very valuable field for exploitation.

There is much more that might be said of Costa Rica, but it would require many volumes to do justice to this charming country. In the brief space remaining, the writer can do no more than give a



AVIATION FIELD, SAN JOSÉ

Anyone in the United States who lives on an air route may fly by several routes to Costa Rica. Much superb mountain scenery is found along the way.

passing word of mention to the country's wealth of natural products, its coffee, bananas, cacao, rubber, hardwoods, cattle, gold, pearls, beans, rice, corn, and many others.

Limitations of space prevent more than the mere mention of Costa Rica's fine communications, postal, radio, and telegraph services, steamship connections, international and local air lines. The trip from the United States may be made entirely by air or via the boats of several steamship companies <sup>1</sup> plying from the east or west coast.

If the visitor is a fair, open-minded person of easily satisfied tastes, he will find much to amuse and please him. Provided he enters into the spirit of Costa Rican daily life he will have no complaints to make and may even feel tempted to prolong his stay. In that case he will not regret it, for Costa Rica, even in these hard times of world depression, is probably of all the world's nations the one most suited for the person with a limited income who is looking for a haven where life is free from worry and trouble, where the cost of living is remarkably low, where taxation is light, where all the amenities of civilization are to hand, and where there is a degree of friendliness and hospitality hardly found elsewhere.

<sup>1</sup> The Foreign Trade Adviser of the Pan American Union will be pleased to supply additional information.



# BARRO COLORADO ISLAND<sup>1</sup>

By T. BARBOUR, Ph. D., Sc. D.

*Director, Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard College*

THE Panama Canal Zone, while not a possession in the strict sense, since our Government controls it by leasehold, is nevertheless the only tropical dependency of the United States which is situated upon a continent—all others are islands. It is so well known as to need no repetition that biotic conditions as to both plants and animals are wholly different upon islands from what they are on the continental land masses.

Now, we must remember that the Panama Canal Zone has been almost completely cleared of virgin forest for cultivation and the small area which remains on the Madden Dam road—now happily a reserve—is still potentially in danger from forest fires and is regularly hunted, since no adequate force of rangers can be employed without specific funds available, which are at present nonexistent. This indicates why Barro Colorado Island is unique. It is virgin forest, it swarms with wild life, and it is protected by competent rangers—not that poaching has been eliminated but it has been greatly reduced. The island, which was formed when the Chagres Valley was flooded to form Gatun Lake, is over 6 square miles in extent, has a shore line of over 25 miles, is largely covered with primeval rain forest of the finest and most varied type, and the few small former clearings once occupied by squatters offer a fine chance to watch their reoccupation by the jungle as the second-growth forest springs up.

The laboratory buildings themselves are of almost Spartan simplicity, but they provide shelter, good food, safe drinking water (rain water from our roof), and protection from mosquitoes. Nowhere else in the whole world can a naturalist live right in the jungle, see from his breakfast table the parrots, the toucans, and the trogons or the monkeys, deer, and wild pigs, be safe from dysentery and malaria, and in case of accident be within a 30-minute launch ride, plus a 40-minute ride in the hospital car of a modern train, of one of the most perfectly appointed and competently staffed hospitals in the world. This situation is worth more than gold—yea, than much fine gold. We are too far from settlements to have infected mosquitoes fly to our dooryard, and by allowing no infected person on the island we can keep our own mosquitoes—and there are plenty of them, and *Anopheles*, too—free from malarial parasites and hence harmless.

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<sup>1</sup> Photographs by J. Vetch and T. Barbour.



So much for the general situation. One naturally asks, How did this extraordinary institution come into being? The origin lies in the fact that the Canal Zone is, and has been for years, governed by highly intelligent men, and that it is, and often has been, visited by scientists. So when a group of scientists approached Governor Morrow in 1924 and asked that the island be withdrawn from settlement and set aside for a biological preserve he took action that very day. The laboratory was established on the island under the auspices of the institute for Research in Tropical America, an independent organi-



THE LABORATORY ON  
BARRO COLORADO IS-  
LAND, PANAMA CA-  
NAL

On emerging from the forest trail one sees the laboratory buildings of the Institute for Research in Tropical America where in the past 8 years scientists from more than 50 institutions have availed themselves of the island's facilities for research.

zation consisting of representatives of a number of universities and other research agencies of the United States. The election of the executive committee of the Institute is conducted, by ballot, for the Institute by the National Research Council, which is a member of the Institute and which is able to provide an introduction for the institute and the laboratory to the government of the Canal Zone on the basis of the official recognition of the Research Council by the Federal Government of the United States. Without this connection, under the treaty conditions existing with the Republic of Panama, the government of the Canal Zone could not grant

such concessions to naturalists authorized to make use of the laboratory as it now does. These are railroad passes, the privilege of making purchases from the Panama Canal commissary, hospital care at employee's rates, reduced rates for passage on vessels of the Panama Railroad Steamship Co. from New York to Panama. Without our commissary privileges we could not live, for our provisions and ice come to Frijoles station early every morning from the Cristobal stores, and one of our faithful Indian boys ferries them across Gatun Lake each day in a little dugout *cayuca* during the morning calm, before the strong trade wind rises. The United Fruit Co., the Standard Fruit & Steamship Co., and other organizations have helped with special reduced rates for our workers and have often carried our gear and building materials free.

Our buildings have all been built by friends. Some frequent visitors like Doctor Chapman and me have our own little houses, but most workers stay in the big dormitory upstairs in the main laboratory building and do their table work on the front porch upstairs or on the high airy ground floor of which one corner is our dining room. Recently some generous visitors—Mr. and Mrs. Carll Tucker—have given us an electric-light plant and we have the ultimate luxury of electricity.

We have been fortunate indeed in our friends; officials of the Canal, from governor to policemen, and officers of the Army and Navy without number have helped us with our problems of transport, subsistence, building, and mapping and surveying. We have at last a fine detailed map of the island which shows our trails. These are named for various scientific visitors or benefactors and they are marked every 100 feet with durable metal tags made fast to conspicuous trees. In this way a colony of ants or a flowering tree may be so accurately located that observations may be carried on from year to year without the necessity of the observer always being the same person.

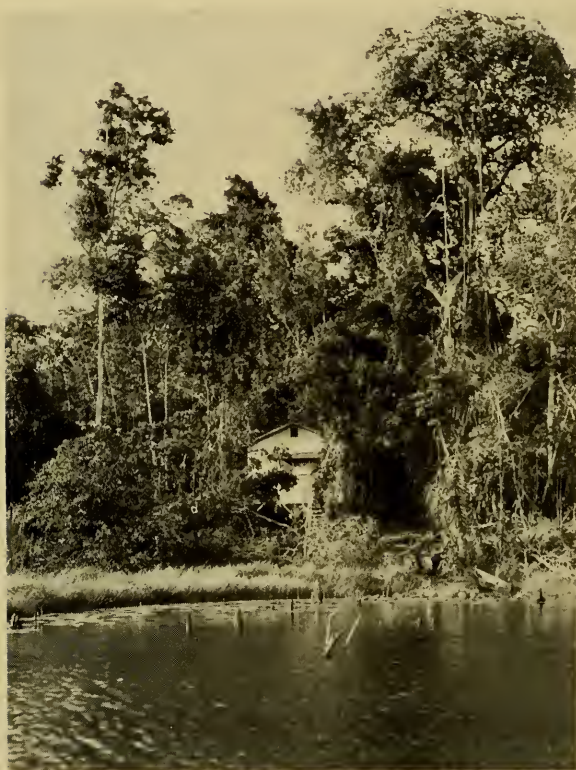
The project is supported by table fees of \$300 each, paid by about 10 universities and museums in North America. Men from these institutions pay \$3 per day for board and lodging, others pay \$4, unless they render some special services, such as working on our local herbarium, in which case special rates are made.

Anyone wishing to work at the station must communicate with the office of the chairman of the executive committee, the present incumbent being Thomas Barbour, of the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard College.

The 161 scientists who have availed themselves of facilities the island has offered during its first eight years of existence have come from no less than 56 research institutions as far flung as Copenhagen,

Edinburgh, London, Cambridge, Kew, Honolulu, Puerto Rico, El Salvador, Costa Rica, and the United States from New England to California and from Michigan to Florida. Harvard University has sent more workers than any other two sources.

I might go on indefinitely telling you how our houses are built and what we eat and describing laboratory life in general, but, after all, the island's the thing that interests everyone, that draws the naturalist to our station and that fascinates the hundreds who, in the



AN OUTSTATION OF  
THE LABORATORY

The ever-encroaching forest has apparently almost submerged this station on the western shore of Barro Colorado Island.

ships of every nation, pass our very door—the island, its vegetation and its animal life.

A description such that one unfamiliar with the tropical forest can visualize in any degree its overpowering splendor, its infinite variety, and the impression of constant change and struggle which it conveys, is hopeless, impossible. Our northern forests are either clear stands of spruce, pine, hemlock, or maple or beech, perhaps, or mixed stands involving a few species, but the tropical forest is not like that at all. In a few acres a hundred species of trees may be found, some tall slender palms, some giants with their leafy crowns so far above one that small birds in the upper branches are hard to



## A CLEARING IN THE FOREST

The infinitely varied plant life of the forests includes palms of many species, tall and slender, smooth and spiny. Some have fronds nearly 40 feet long.



## A GIANT OF THE FOREST

The largest known tree on the Barro Colorado Island, a specimen of *Bombacopsis fendleri*, is 200 feet in circumference, measured outside the great buttresses supporting the trunk.



recognize even with field glasses. New plants, even large trees, are being discovered each year on the island, and the list of those already known makes a stately volume. Such forest giants as Espavé (*Anacardium excelsum*) have great horizontal branches which are covered with wide beds of ferns, bromeliads, and orchids; the upper limbs are interwoven with each other and the ground by woody cables, some fine as wire, others larger than a man's leg. These tree gardens have a varied and rich fauna of insects, frogs, even birds and mammals. Here hide some of the hosts of nocturnal creatures which we hear but seldom see. Eyes shining far above us as we walk the trails at night with a powerful light are often the only indication of their existence. Although some of the frogs may come to earth for breeding in stagnant pools of rain water, others almost certainly lay their rapidly developing eggs in water held in the calyces of the bromeliads. These eggs give rise in a few days to perfect frogs, in whose life history the free-living tadpole stage has been omitted. Birds nest in these inaccessible gardens, and this explains in part why for so many of our island birds the nest and eggs are as yet unknown. Speaking of birds reminds me that over 300 species have been seen on B. C. I., as we call it, which is a prodigious number for a forest of but a few square miles.

Dr. Frank Chapman has gotten portraits of many of our larger mammals with his flash-light camera, and these are well known through his article, *Who Treads Our Trails* (National Geographic Magazine, vol. 52, No. 3, September, 1927, p. 331), and his ever charming book, *My Tropical Air Castle* (D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1929).

I speak of the mammals and the birds because so many people are naturally interested in these groups. To list the problems which have been attacked by the island's visitors would be impossible. Teachers have come simply to see and to feel the jungle, and hence to be better and more convincing teachers when next they lecture on tropical life to their classes. Others come to seek material for future classroom demonstration or for fine dissection and study at home, although birds and mammals in general are not collected. Others come to observe the social life of the host of strange ants and bees and wasps, as can only be done beside the colony. The bacteria causing leaf rotting on the forest floor, the adaptation of salt-water animals which have been locked up into the fresh waters of Gatun Lake, the study of the curious slime molds, insect courtship, or metamorphosis; these and a thousand other problems offer thrilling fields for study now and will for generations still to come. The fauna and flora are so varied that the problems in systematic zoology, ecology, animal sociology, embryology, and physiology are almost infinite.

To exhaust them would be like trying to bail out Gatun Lake with a bucket.

Many persons dread a trip to the Tropics on account of the heat, but on the Isthmus the oceans are not far away and the trade wind blows almost every day. The calms of March (*las calmas de Marzo*) are sometimes trying and, of course, the air—especially in our summer-time—is moist. We expect about 115 to 125 inches of rain a year, but January, February, March, and April are relatively dry, and perhaps no more than 15 inches may fall in this third of the year. To be sure, we are only about 9° north of the Equator, about 750



Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History

#### AN INDIAN CAYUCA

In such canoes provisions are brought daily from Cristobal to the workers on the island.

miles; nevertheless, the temperature in the shade of the laboratory is seldom over 92° and rarely below 72°. In the deep forest the temperature is strikingly uniform; my recollection is that Professor Allee's self-recording thermometer registered practically a straight line day after day at 84°. This, of course, affords an optimum condition for forest growth, and the largest tree we know of on the island, a specimen of *Bombacopsis fendleri*, is proof indeed that the growing is good. This giant measures—outside the great flange-like buttresses that support its massive trunk—no less than 200 feet. These buttresses form giant stalls so deep and dark that several species of bats regularly make use of their recesses for daytime roosts.

In the dry season our forest is gorgeous, indeed. Imagine great trees towering far above their giant neighbors, one a mass of brilliant golden blossoms—the *guayacan*; others, like the *jacaranda*, the most lovely violet. The *almendro* is pale pink, while the *palo santo* has flowers of a crimson as rich as the color of arterial blood. In the woods a vine, one of the passion flowers (*Passiflora vitifolia*), has flowers of gorgeous scarlet; another species, of purple and white—then there are the orchids. But I have said enough to prove my point. A host of our birds have songs as rarely lovely as those of the best northern songsters, and most of them are infinitely more gorgeous to see.

Barro Colorado means “red clay” in Spanish, and the name is fitting, for our subsoil is red on a substratum of reddish sandstone and conglomerate.



FLOATING ISLANDS ON  
GATUN LAKE, PANAMA CANAL

The sheltered portions of the lake are gradually being covered with islands of vegetation.

In Prof. L. A. Kenney's excellent article on the island in the *Scientific Monthly* (October, 1928), he says, “History tells us that the courageous but unprincipled British pirate, Sir Henry Morgan, as he marched across the Isthmus to raid Panama City, was repulsed for a time by a band of Panamanians [i. e., Spaniards] stationed at Barro Colorado, but that the resistance finally broke down and permitted the raiders to carry out their dastardly ambition.” Our island was then a headland projecting into the Chagres River.

I wish that space permitted me to write of our streams and shores, of the floating islands we so often visit and the strange beings, both animals and plants, that inhabit the great dead stumps which still, after 14 years, stick up out of the water where the forest was flooded to make the lake.

I may conclude by asking a question. What, then, is the aspect of this institution which makes it of interest to the Pan American



Union? It is situated at one of the great crossways of the world. Scientists from all the world are welcome in so far as they can be accommodated, and the station is as accessible to the naturalist from Valparaiso as to the one from New York.

Curiously enough, this unique station has led, and still leads, a precarious existence. The subscriptions do not maintain it, for in the Tropics building repairs and repainting are perennially recurring. A few friends of the station have made its continuance possible. Its devoted resident custodian, James Zetek, an entomologist of the United States Department of Agriculture, serves the laboratory out of office hours, and receives no recompense for this extra work. To be sure, it has enabled him to render a service to his department which is unique, for the island swarms with termites of many species, and each of our buildings is specifically built by different methods to test the resistance of many materials and treatments against termite or "white ant" ravages.

This is a poor little sketch. It is hopelessly inadequate from every point of view, but it may answer the questions of some who say, "What is that place?" as they steam peacefully by our shores and see in a little hillside clearing in the forest white cottages nestling against the overwhelming green jungle wall.







DR. MIGUEL CRUCHAGA TOCORNAL HONORED AT LUNCHEON

The retiring Ambassador of Chile, Doctor Cruchaga, was the guest of honor at a luncheon given by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union November 30, on the eve of his departure for Chile where he will assume the post of Minister of Foreign Relations. Seated at the table, beginning at the left, are: Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union; Señor Don Manuel González Zaledón, Chargé d'Affaires of Costa Rica; Dr. Enrique Finot, Minister of Bolivia; Señor Don Roberto Despradel, Minister of the Dominican Republic; Dr. Jacobo Varela, Minister of Uruguay; Doctor Cruchaga, Hon. Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of State and Chairman of the Governing Board; Dr. R. de Lima e Silva, Ambassador of Brazil; M. Dantes Bellegarde, Minister of Haiti; Dr. Gonzalo Zaldumbide, Minister of Ecuador; Señor Don Pablo M. Ynsfran, Chargé d'Affaires of Paraguay; Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Dr. Roberto D. Meléndez, Special Representative of El Salvador on the Governing Board; Señor Don Pablo Campos-Ortiz, Chargé d'Affaires of Mexico; Dr. Céleo Dávila, Minister of Honduras; Dr. Pedro Manuel Araya, Minister of Venezuela; Señor Don Manuel de Freyre y Santander, Ambassador of Peru; Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala and Vice Chairman of the Governing Board; Señor Don Oscar B. Cintas, Ambassador of Cuba; Dr. Fabio Lozano, Minister of Colombia; Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Minister of Panama; Dr. Luis M. Debayle, Chargé d'Affaires of Nicaragua.



## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD

*Farewell luncheon to Dr. Cruchaga.*—On November 30, 1932, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union tendered a farewell luncheon to Dr. Miguel Cruchaga, the retiring Ambassador of Chile to the United States, who was leaving Washington to become Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Cabinet of President Alessandri. The deep regret felt by all members of the Governing Board was cogently expressed by Secretary Stimson when he said, "During Ambassador Cruchaga's stay at Washington he has not only won the confidence of all who have been privileged to come into contact with him but also endeared himself to his large circle of friends. Not only as ambassador of Chile but also as a member of a number of important inter-American commissions, he has carried forward with untiring zeal the movement for Pan American unity. For this important work he has placed the entire continent under a debt of obligation."

*Visit of Mr. Gleave.*—During the latter part of November Mr. J. L. Gleave, A. R. I. B. A., of England, the architect of the prize-winning design for the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse, spent a week in Washington. He came here from the Dominican Republic, where he had gone to inspect the site selected for the monument.

During one of his visits to the Union, Mr. Gleave talked to the members of the staff about the design and its symbolism, amplifying his written explanation.<sup>1</sup> The Director General, Dr. L. S. Rowe, gave in honor of the distinguished visitor a luncheon at which the guests included the Minister of the Dominican Republic and members of the staff of the legation, members of the Fine Arts Commission of the District of Columbia, leading architects, and officials of the Pan American Union. At the conclusion of his stay in Washington,

<sup>1</sup> See "The Columbus Memorial Lighthouse Design," by J. L. Gleave, in the Bulletin of the Pan American Union for May, 1932.

Mr. Gleave left for Chicago to study the buildings erected for the International Exposition to be held this year.

#### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*Recent bibliographical publications.*—The special collection of library journals maintained by the Columbus Memorial Library was increased during the past month by the addition of the *Boletín de la Biblioteca Nacional* from the National Library in Guatemala City. This second issue to appear contains, in addition to historical articles, a finding list of the periodicals in the library. The *Boletín* is under the direction of the Technical Cooperating Committee on Bibliography of Guatemala, created to cooperate with the Pan American Union in bibliographic matters relating to that country, of which committee Señor Don Rafael Arévalo Martínez is president.

A work designed to serve for Spain and Latin America the purposes of the United States Catalog in this country has just appeared under the auspices of the Official Board of Books of Madrid and Barcelona. The plan as outlined by the publishers will include all books published from 1901 to 1930 and will comprise four quarto volumes. Volume 1, covering letters A to Ch, includes 20,046 entries arranged by authors.

It is interesting to note that the new volume of *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, 1929-1932, New York, W. H. Wilson & Co., contains a complete index to the contents of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for that period.

*Special libraries organized.*—Two new libraries have recently been organized, one by the Medical School of the National University in Bogota, and the other in the Prison for Women in Guatemala City. For the latter institution the Secretary of Public Education of Guatemala has issued a circular letter requesting books by Guatemalan authors.

*Radio readings.*—As part of its regular radio service the Department of Libraries of the Secretary of Public Education of Mexico has offered to include in its programs the reading of passages from books or poems by special request and to report upon the books of any particular authors in which listeners may be interested. Requests should be addressed to the office of the secretary, Calle República Argentina, No. 28.

*Recent acquisitions.*—Among the 202 books added to the shelves of the library during the past month the following are specially noted:

*Historia de las leyes [de la República de Colombia]*, tomo xviii, legislatura de 1931. Edición ordenada por la Cámara de Representantes y dirigida, concordada y anotada por Horacio Valencia Arango . . . Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1932. 497 p. 25 cm.



*Nueva crónica de la conquista del Tucumán* documentada en los Archivos de Sevilla, Madrid, París y Londres y en los xxxv volúmenes de publicaciones históricas de la Biblioteca del Congreso Argentino editados o en vía de editarse bajo la dirección del autor [Roberto Levillier]. Tomo iii, 1574-1600. Edición especialmente tirada para la Comisión protectora de bibliotecas populares. Varsovia, 1931. 429 p. map. 24½ cm.

*Poesías*: Alfonso Otero, Roberto de J. Díaz. Bucaramanga, Imprenta del Departamento, 1932. 167 p. ports. 23 cm. (Biblioteca Santander, volumen iv.) Contents: Cosecha lírica, [por] Alfonso Otero Muñoz.—Hojas al viento, [por] Roberto de J. Díaz.

*Los poemas de Edgar Poe*, traducción, prólogo y notas [por] Carlos Obligado. Buenos Aires, Viau y Zona, 1932. 187 p., incl. front. (port.) 25 cm.

*Anuario Daumas*; guía general del Paraguay. Primera edición, 1932. [Asunción, Talleres gráficos "La Colmena" s. a.] [1531] p. illus., ports., fold. map. 26½ cm.

*El escudero nacional de Honduras*, [por] la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores. Tegucigalpa, Tipo-lito-foto y encuadernación nacionales [1932]. 26 p., incl. illus. fold. col. pl. 17 cm.

*México en el teatro* [por] Rodolfo Usigli. Mexico, Imprenta Mundial, 1932. 220 p. plates, ports. 25½ cm.

*Las obras de José Guadalupe Posada*, grabador mexicano, con introducción de Diego Rivera. Editors: Frances Toor, Paul O'Higgins, Blas Vanegas Arroyo. Publicada por Mexican Folkways. Mexico, Talleres gráficos de la nación, 1930. 208 p. illus., port. 35 cm.

*Cómo estabilizar la agricultura nacional*: crédito habilitador, seguro agrícola integra, [por] Francisco Gómez Haedo [y] Edmundo Soares Netto. Montevideo, Imp. "El siglo ilustrado," 1932. 246 p. tables (part. fold.) diagrs. (part. fold. and col.) 24 cm.

*Patrón de oro o bimetalismo*, ensayo sobre aspectos nuevos de un problema antiguo, por Ignacio Meller. Lima, Librería e imprenta Gil, s. a., 1932. 164 p. fold. diagr. 18 cm.

*Cumandá*, [por] Juan León Mera. Notes and vocabulary by Pastoriza Flores . . . Boston, New York, [etc.] D. C. Heath and company [1932]. 258 p. 17 cm.

*Estados Unidos y las Antillas*, [por] Tulio M. Cestero. Madrid [etc.] Compañía ibero-americana de publicaciones (s. a.) [1931]. 232 p. 20 cm.

*Bolívar, el libertador*, por José M. Salaverría. Primera edición. Madrid, Barcelona, Espasa-Calpe, s. a., 1930. 237 p. 19½ cm. (Vidas españolas e hispanoamericanas del siglo xix, 11.)

*Catálogo general de la librería española e hispanoamericana*, años 1901-1930. Autores. Tomo 1, a-ch. [Madrid] Cámaras oficiales del libro de Madrid y de Barcelona, 1932. 759 p. 29½ cm.

*Martín Fierro*, [por] José Hernández. Ilustrado por Adolfo Bellocq. Buenos Aires, Amigos del arte, 1930. front. (port.), illus. 41 cm.

Among the new magazines and those received by the library for the first time, the following have been especially noted:

*Boletim da Secretaria da agricultura, industria e viação*. Recife, Imprensa official, 1932. Tomo 1, n.º 2, abril a junho de 1932. 295 p. plates. 23½ x 16½ cm. Distributed free and by exchange. Address: Secretaria da agricultura, industria e viação, Recife, Estado de Pernambuco, Brazil.

*Revista social*. Mérida, Yucatán, México, 1932. Vol. vi, núm. 80, 15 de octubre de 1932. 34 p. illus. 30 x 24 cm. Member of the Consolidated informa-



tion service of New York. Semimonthly. Editor: Gabriel Antonio Menéndez. Address: Apartado postal 365, Mérida, Yucatán, México.

*Revista del Colegio de abogados del estado Mérida*; publicación mensual [de] derecho y legislación. Mérida, Venezuela, 1932. Año I, n.º 2, octubre de 1932. p. 25-50. 23 x 16½ cm. Editors: Dr. Florencio Ramírez, Dr. Pedro José Godoy, and Dr. J. R. Sanz Febres. Address: Colegio de abogados del estado de Mérida, Mérida, Venezuela.

*Boletín oficial de la bolsa de comercio de Santiago*. Santiago de Chile, 1932. Año I, n.º 1, agosto, 1932. 16 p. 30 x 24 cm. Monthly. Address: Bolsa de comercio de Santiago, Santiago de Chile.

*Boletín de la biblioteca nacional*. Guatemala, 1932. Año I, núm. 2, agosto de 1932. p. [34]-59. 27 x 19½ cm. Editor: Rafael Arévalo Martínez. Address: Biblioteca nacional, Guatemala, Guatemala.

*Revista de la sociedad filatélica argentina*. Buenos Aires, 1932. Año xxxvi, n.º 3 y 4, números 270 y 271, mayo-agosto de 1932. p. [57]-112. illus., ports. 27 x 18 cm. Distributed free to members of the "Sociedad filatélica argentina." Editor: Dr. Ricardo D. Eliçabe. Address: Sociedad filatélica argentina, Casilla de correo núm. 1103, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

*Boletín de informaciones petrolíferas yacimientos e industrias*. Buenos Aires, 1932. p. 575-660. diagrs. 26½ x 18½ cm. Año IX, n.º 96, agosto de 1932. Monthly. Editor: Julio Aguirre Celiz. Address: Dirección general de yacimientos petrolíferos fiscales, Paseo Colón 922, Buenos Aires, Argentina.



# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## TREE PLANTING IN MEXICO

The conservation of forests and the problems of reforestation have for many years received much attention in Mexico.

The Mexican Forestry Association (Sociedad Forestal Mexicana) was established in 1922, and its work during the past 10 years is indeed worthy of the highest praise. It promoted the celebration of National Arbor Day, an initiative which found hearty support throughout the nation. During the last three years the celebration has been extended to include the week of February 14-20, any day in which may be observed locally as Arbor Day. Official recognition was given this celebration by a presidential proclamation issued in 1932. Since 1923 the association has published *México Forestal*, a monthly review, whose pages are an excellent source of detailed information on Mexican forestry resources, needs, problems, and methods of exploitation and conservation. During March, 1930, the First National Congress on Forestry was held in Mexico City under the auspices of the association, with more than 175 delegates in attendance.

On April 5, 1926, a general forestry law was signed by the President, giving wide powers to the department of agriculture in this matter. A presidential decree of March 17, 1932, makes it obligatory for all who engage in the exploitation of forests to restore the species of trees they are exploiting. No permits for exploitation will be issued unless the applications are accompanied by a reforestation plan. Persons then engaged in exploitation had to submit such plans within three months.

The Mexican Institute of Forestry Investigations (Instituto Mexicano de Investigaciones Forestales) was established by a presidential decree of July 1st, 1932. One of the main reasons for creating the institute was the great variety of forestal species, many of great value, and some to be found exclusively in Mexico. The decree also states that the creation of the institute had been recommended by the First National Congress on Forestry.

The primary purpose of the institute will be to study the exploitation and renewal and, where necessary, the restoration of the national forestal resources. The institute will be aided in its work by the School of Engineering of the National University, the Mexican Forestry Association, and the department of agriculture.

The General Bureau of Agriculture is conducting through its regional agents in the various sections of the country an active campaign for the promotion of reforestation. This campaign embraces the cultivation of fruit trees, vines, and vegetables.

Thirty-six thousand young trees have been planted in the northern section of the State of Chihuahua. In the southern section of the State a nursery is to be established which will supply the different species to be planted. At Silao, in the State of Guanajuato, a nursery of fruit trees was established with the cooperation of all farmers in the region. At the present time this nursery has more than 6,000 plants of the following species: Plum, grape, quince, and peach.

Progress in cultivation is also being made in the States of Hidalgo, Mexico, Nuevo Leon, Sinaloa, and Veracruz. The species being planted include pears, plums, nuts, peaches, and tejocotes, a fruit peculiar to Mexico resembling a sloe.

A technical course in reforestation has been added to the curriculum of the vocational school at Tlalpan. This course is to be supplemented by practical experiments to be conducted on land furnished by the General Bureau of Agriculture.—A. C.

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## THE PAN AMERICAN RAILWAY

The idea of an intercontinental railway which would connect the Americas has been entertained for almost 70 years by citizens of both northern and southern continents. International attention was first focused on the idea, however, at the First International Conference of American States, held in Washington in 1889-90, and the undertaking has been the subject of favorable resolutions then and at every succeeding conference: Mexico, 1901; Rio de Janeiro, 1906; Buenos Aires, 1910; Santiago, Chile, 1923; and Habana, 1928.

From a more extensive report prepared by Señor Santiago Marín Vicuña of Chile, a member of the Permanent Commission of the Pan American Railway, the following information is taken.

The Pan American Railway is planned to connect as advantageously as possible the extensive net of railways already established in the Americas, whose total continental area, estimated at 15,200,000 square miles, has a population of 250,000,000 inhabitants served by approximately 552,000 miles of railways. If the Greater Antilles are included, the total mileage would be increased to a little more than 564,200 miles, or about 57 per cent of the total mileage now in operation throughout the world. If only the continental systems in use in America at the present time are considered, there are 3.84 miles of railway to every 100 square miles, and 2.57 miles to every 1,000 inhabitants.

As the result of a resolution passed in 1890 at the First International Conference of American States, an international commission of engineers was appointed in 1893. A plan was drawn up and its general outlines have been followed ever since. The proposed railway was divided, for all practical purposes, into two sections—the trunk, or longitudinal line, and the transverse connections. The first will pass, according to plans, through the three Americas from north to south, from Ottawa to Buenos Aires; its total length will be some 10,650 miles, barely three-fourths of which are finished. The second will connect those nations lying to one side or the other of the first section—Venezuela, the Guianas, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Chile. The total length of the railways comprising the second section will equal that of the main line, and it is upon the lateral connections that the greatest thought has been expended.

The proposed general route of the Pan American Railway is as follows: Leaving Ottawa, it crosses the boundary of the United States at Cornwall, passes through Washington, and reaches the Mexican frontier at Laredo. After traversing the entire length of Mexico, it enters Central America at Ayutla, Guatemala, passing through the capitals of all the Central American republics and of Panama. In Colombia it follows the valley of the Cauca River, crosses the Rumichaca into Ecuador, where it passes through Quito and enters Peru over the Canchis River. Nearly the whole length of Peru is traversed; Bolivia is entered on the farther shore of Lake Titicaca, at Guaqui, and left at La Quiaca, on the Argentine border. In Argentina the extensive railway system which reaches Buenos Aires via Tucuman and Cordoba will be utilized; the traveler wishing to continue south may do so as far as Viedma, the seaport capital of the Territory of Rio Negro. From Ottawa to Viedma the railway will run from 46° north latitude to 41° south latitude, 87° in all, or nearly half the distance from pole to pole.

Of this vast intercontinental system, about 4,650 miles remain to be constructed, at an estimated cost of \$225,000,000, or an average of a little more than \$48,000 per mile. The subject is on the agenda of the Seventh International Conference of American States, scheduled to meet in Montevideo in December, 1933, when the permanent commission will present a detailed report.

A Pan American Highway is also projected, on a somewhat different route. For progress which has been made on the construction of the sections in Mexico, Central America, and Panama, see *Inter American Highways*, by Pyke Johnson, BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, January, 1930, and *The Present Status of the Inter American Highway*, by E. W. James, in the July, 1931, issue of the BULLETIN.



## URUGUAYAN ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL NOTES

A report issued by the Bank of the Republic, of Uruguay, which has reached the Pan American Union through the courtesy of the *Cámara Mercantil de Productos del País*, of Montevideo, reveals in statistical form the present economic and financial position of Uruguay, as well as presents a picture of trade and finance for a number of past years.

Probably the outstanding feature of this report is contained in the section covering exports of the principal commodities produced in the country. A study of the figures covering wool exports, for example, reveals clearly how the factor of low prices has affected the national economy in the recent period of depression. With the year 1925 as a basis of 100, the *volume* index of total wool exports rose to 133 in 1926, 170 in 1927, 132 in 1928, 126 in 1929, 193 in 1930, and 162 in 1931. The total *value* index, however, with the year 1925 also as a basis of 100, followed this generally downward course: 1926, 97; 1927, 113; 1928, 106; 1929, 99; 1930, 91; and 1931, 71. The average price per kilogram received by wool producers showed a decline from a basis of 100 in 1925 to 44 in 1931.

A similar picture is presented by the statistics covering prices of wheat, corn, linseed, and cattle products, although the price declines for these commodities are not as sharp as those for wool.

In the section covering the financial position of the Government, it is revealed that the fiscal year ended June 30, 1932, resulted in a deficit of 7,431,000 pesos. While expenditures amounted to 63,167,000 pesos, revenues totaled only 55,736,000 pesos. In accounting for the deficit, a study of the detailed figures shows that on the side of revenues, while the income from special revenues and national services were maintained at the same or higher levels than in the preceding year, receipts from direct taxes declined about 10 per cent and from indirect taxes, the principal source of governmental income, about 8 per cent.

Expenditures for the year 1930-31, on the other hand, increased in those items covering service on the public debt and certain special disbursements such as relief measures. The ordinary running expenses of the Government were held down to almost the same amounts as those expended in the previous fiscal period.

Reflecting the manner in which the depression has affected Uruguayan Government finances, a study of revenues and expenditures over a period of years reveals the fact that although a small deficit of less than a million pesos resulted from the 1929-30 operations,

surpluses had been accumulated in every fiscal period since that of 1922-23.

With regard to the public debt of the Government, a study of recent developments shows an increase in internal obligations during the last four years, which has been sharply accentuated recently, rising from a total of 71,829,000 pesos at the end of 1928 to 76,720,000 at the close of 1929, 85,948,000 in 1930, 90,758,000 in 1931, and 101,139,000 pesos at the end of June, 1932. The external and international obligations of the Government, on the other hand, manifest a steady decline during the last two years. As of June 31, 1932, the total debt of the Government amounted to 247,789,000 pesos, composed of 141,670,000 pesos external obligations, 101,139,000 internal and 4,980,000 pesos international.<sup>1</sup>

Those statistics of the Bank of the Republic covering retail prices of articles of national production forming one index, after remaining within about 10 or 12 points of the 1913 base of 100 during the period 1922-1930, inclusive, began to rise in the latter part of 1931, although the average for that year was only 112. In 1932, however, the monthly index from January through July fluctuated between 121 and 131, showing a downward tendency in June and July, the figure for the latter month being 124.

While on account of exchange conditions in the last year it might be expected that the indices of 10 representative foreign articles listed would reveal increases, it was not until the months of May, June, and July, 1932, that the index of this group began to rise from the level maintained during the last few years. Thus, while the 10-year average (1922-1931, inclusive) was 161 (1913 = 100), the average for the first seven months of 1932 was 154, with the index for July at 167.

The index covering a total of 31 articles contained in the four general classification groups shows an average during the years 1922 through 1931 of 124, with the greatest fluctuation from this average in any year being only three points. The first seven months of 1932, however, reveal a rise to an average of 134.—H. G. S.

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## ARGENTINE POSTAL STAMPS USED FOR BUSINESS PROMOTION

The American Trade Commissioner in Buenos Aires reports that the Argentine Post Office has embarked on a new plan of increasing retail sales among Buenos Aires merchants, while also increasing postal savings. This is to be effected by issuing postage stamps in the form of booklets, which have not hitherto been available in

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<sup>1</sup> The so-called "international" debt of Uruguay is in reality a portion of the internal debt and represents the settlement of a loan from the Government of Brazil and of certain claims of that Government.

Argentina. The new books, which were issued September 5, contain a small sheet of stamps. Those selling for 30 centavos contain six regular stamps worth 5 centavos paper each, those costing 60 centavos paper contain six 10-centavo stamps, and those costing 1.20 paper pesos contain twelve 10-centavo stamps. These stamps are used for regular correspondence and are sold at their face value without extra charge for being in book form.

The novelty of the plan lies in the fact that in addition to the small sheet of stamps each book contains approximately 50 pages, in which appear advertisements of local stores or products and a list of probably 150 retail stores, theaters, moving-picture houses, dental parlors, etc. Each sheet is perforated, and upon its delivery to the store mentioned on it a discount will be granted in the purchase of any merchandise. The amount of the discount varies from 5 to 10 per cent, depending upon the store, but the moving-picture theaters grant 50 per cent discounts on each ticket. This discount is not paid in cash, but in the form of a postal-savings stamp. Such stamps, when they reach 1 paper peso or more, may be presented to any post office and deposited to the credit of the owner in an account bearing interest at the regular postal savings bank rates. It is stated that the amounts may be drawn in cash or individual deposits made to the account apart from any purchase in merchandise.

Additional data useful to the purchaser of postage stamps include a list of postal substations and details on postal rates.

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## SOCIAL WELFARE ORGANIZATIONS

In Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA, there has recently been founded a new child-welfare organization, under the name of Liga Pro-Moralidad y Defensa de la Niñez. Among the purposes of the League is to oversee school attendance. In the case of children who do not attend school regularly because they are obliged to work for the support of the family, the League will take steps to give financial assistance to the parents so that the children's education may not be interrupted. The organization will also fight against vagrancy and try to have homeless children sent to proper institutions or apprenticed to a trade. It also expects to establish libraries and gymnasiums. Furthermore, it will try in every way to keep homes unbroken and to advise parents in the proper methods of bringing up their children.

An emergency committee in Bogota, COLOMBIA, has undertaken an interesting work on behalf of the needy. For this purpose it has opened several cafeterias where a free breakfast will be given to children who formerly went to school without food, to the poor and old, to employed women earning small wages, and to men out of work.

Persons of means can buy a book of tickets, each good for a meal, which they can distribute among those needing such assistance and thus be assured that the object of their charity is being fulfilled. This method also helps to remove beggars from the street.

In the central cafeteria there are various rooms for those who are able to pay for their meals; the small profit from this source helps finance the project.

One of these rooms is in the colonial style and is decorated with some of the best works of the well-known painter Roberto Pizano. Another in similar style is dedicated to the memory of José María Vergara y Vergara, an author well known for his charming pictures of colonial life.<sup>1</sup> The children's room is decorated with the pictures from the stories of the poet Rafael Pombo, and also contains books for their amusement. And finally, there is a delightful terrace with tables in the open air where diners may enjoy the sun and the magnificent view.

Señor J. A. Pardo Ospina, director and founder of the Colombian Institute for the Blind in Bogota, has awakened general interest in those handicapped in this way. The Institute at present has a school divided into kindergarten, primary, and secondary sections. There are both boarding and day pupils. Instruction is given in accordance with the latest methods of teaching for the blind. They are also taught vocational work in the shops established for the purpose, where they make rugs, carpets, baskets, and woolen articles. Music lessons are given and there is a school orchestra. The Institute has been sending representatives to all parts of the country to interest the various Departments in establishing similar schools. The Government has imposed a tax to assist in this work and is offering help in other ways.

Medellín, an industrial center, already has an Institute for the Blind and Deaf Mutes. Its modern building is well equipped for housing and educating those in its care.

One of the important social welfare institutions in CHILE which is sustained by a private charity is the home in Santiago where 700 children from 3 to 14 years of age are housed and educated. After the children have finished their primary schooling, they are sent to other institutions and taught a trade. In connection with the home there is a section for children under 3, and another for the aged. Thousands of orphans or neglected children have benefited by the work of this institution.

The St. Lucy Society for the Protection of the Blind is also sustained by private contributions. Its chief work is teaching the blind to earn

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<sup>1</sup> See "A Cup of Chocolate," by José María Vergara y Vergara, *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for August, 1931.



a living. It occupies a modern building where the blind, under the instruction of nuns, are taught by modern methods. A special gymnasium plays an important part in helping blind children to develop normally. Instruction is given in vocational work and music, and recreation is provided. The Institute has a clinic for treating those who are ill. A special point is made of visiting the families of boarding pupils, so as to arrange for close cooperation between home and school.

From Professor Manuel Velázquez Andrade, of MEXICO, has come the following information about the institution formerly known as the Reformatory for Boys:

Eleven miles from Mexico City, in the Ajusco mountains, stands a red brick building surrounded by ancient walls. It is the Guidance Home for Boys (*Casa Orientación para Varones*). Set on the seven and a half acres within its bounds is a miniature community. The buildings contain dormitories, dining room and kitchen, offices, school rooms, and vocational-training shops, while on the grounds are an athletic field, flower and vegetable gardens, and a small park.

To this institution, supported by the municipal authorities of Mexico City, are sent boys from all parts of the Republic—neglected children or youthful offenders sentenced by the Juvenile Court for truancy or incorrigibility. The boys, of whom there are over 400, range from 8 to 20 years in age; those of 19 or 20 are the exception, however, for according to the penal code only offenders of 18 or under are sent to institutions of this kind.

At the home each boy is given a program planned according to his individual needs as charted from social, educational, and other studies made by the Juvenile Court. For greater convenience in helping the boys they are divided, for both academic and vocational classes, into two sections, children and adolescents. There is a small group of about 30 defectives—feeble-minded, backward, or crippled children—which is not included in that arrangement; for this class special instruction is planned.

The purpose of the academic work is to provide the boys with at least a primary-school education, for a large percentage is illiterate when sent there. It is compulsory that all should finish the fourth grade, and for the few who wish to continue their studies fifth and sixth grade classes are held. The smaller boys are taught in classes of 30 to 35; the older group is divided into two sections of from 40 to 60 pupils apiece, classified by previous education rather than by age. For the children's groups the school year and regular course of study of the Federal schools have been adopted, while the adolescent group works according to the project method, with a special curriculum in which

the academic work is divided into only three grades and the pupil advances according to his ability.

Emphasis is put on hygiene and physical training. Gymnastics, games, military drill—included to develop character and discipline the will—hikes, and swimming are all enjoyed, and the boys are given careful instruction in personal and social hygiene.

Extra-curricular activities, too, are encouraged. There is drawing for the artistic, a band for those who play an instrument, folk songs for those who sing, theatricals, patriotic celebrations, and community gatherings to awaken the sense of civic obligations.

During the first six weeks of his stay in the home each boy is given aptitude tests to determine what sort of vocational training is most suited to his needs and abilities. In the shops a boy may learn to be a mason, carpenter, shoemaker, baker, plumber, printer, electrician, or tailor. Out-of-doors intensive courses in agriculture are given, with especial emphasis on irrigation and the raising of the most common fruits and vegetables. The instruction in agriculture and trades fills a twofold purpose: It enables the institution to be more self-supporting than it would otherwise be, and prepares the boys to obtain employment after they leave and to take their place in the community at large with a minimum of readjustment.

In Mexico City the National Association for the Protection of Children is carrying out an ambitious program of child welfare in connection with which it supports 10 nursery schools, where more than 1,200 children between 2 and 6 years of age daily receive education, food, medical attention, and every other necessary care. These schools occupy buildings especially erected for the purpose with spacious class rooms, dining rooms, rest rooms, and infirmaries; they are surrounded with gardens.

The question of balanced feeding has been carefully studied and two diet tables, appropriate to the median age of 4 years and the special needs of Mexican children, have been drawn up. The food supplied in accordance with these tables gives the due allowance of calories and vitamins necessary for proper development, as attested by the weight and height of each child, which are noted every month. The Bureau of Public Health reports that these good meals have undoubtedly helped in lowering illness and death among the children.

Three physicians, 10 nurses, and a dentist attend to the physical welfare of the children under the supervision of a chief physician. The children are examined daily upon their arrival by a nurse and isolated if they appear to be suffering from a transmissible disease. They are given a daily bath and kept clean and neat. The children are also vaccinated against smallpox and inoculated against diphtheria.

When the schools were first opened, about 50 per cent of the children had various ailments, especially skin diseases, but now the number of sick is comparatively small. Those who suffer from congenital diseases are given proper treatment. An index card is kept for each child, giving his personal and family history, age, weight, height, other physiological facts, and psychological data; the educational history is added. It is thought that these cards will give an interesting basis for future studies. The psychological data will be used to complete tables which the Federal Department of Public Education has been compiling and to direct the work of the teachers with each child.

A Mother's Association functions in connection with each school. At its meetings the work of the school is explained and an effort is made to secure as complete cooperation as possible between the home and the school. Mothers are urged to visit classes so that they may appreciate what is being done for their children.

The same association maintains a maternity hospital with 55 beds, about to be doubled in number. The mortality in this hospital has been very low. Medical social service takes charge of investigations concerning the welfare of mothers and babies. Layettes are provided for the very poor.

Last June the then President Ortiz Rubio generously gave the Association 25 per cent of his salary for the month. With this gift a dining room for children was opened in one of the poorest and most populous districts of the City, in two rooms offered for the purpose by the Department of Public Education. Since that time 200 poor children have been given a daily noon meal, to the great improvement of their health. Sometimes the children are taken on short excursions to enjoy a picnic and a day out of doors.

In Asuncion, PARAGUAY, a similar dining room for poor children has recently been opened. It serves 200 children a day, both at noon and at night, an abundant and nourishing meal.

## NECROLOGY

On September 4, 1932, EL SALVADOR lost one of its most prominent men of letters with the death of Alberto Masferrer. During the course of his life Doctor Masferrer served his Government as a member of the Chamber of Deputies, as Director General of Primary Public Instruction, as Consul General in Belgium, and as delegate to many international congresses. Among these were The Hague Conference in 1912, the Second Pan American Scientific Congress, and the conferences held at San Jose, Costa Rica, to discuss the formation of the Central American Federation.

Don Aníbal Rodríguez, who for many years was an important figure in the political life of CHILE, died at Santiago on October 2, 1932. Señor Rodríguez entered the Ministry of the Interior in 1866, while still a student of law. His ability won him rapid promotion until he rose to the rank of undersecretary of the ministry, serving at the same time as secretary of the Council of State. A member of the National Party, Señor Rodríguez was on several occasions elected to the Chamber of Deputies, representing Temuco, Concepcion, Talcahuano, and Lautaro. In 1909 he was made vice president of the chamber. In 1908 he was called to the Cabinet as Minister of War and Navy, a portfolio which he was to hold four times during his long public career. In 1923 he was again a member of the Cabinet, this time serving as Minister of Finance. In December, 1925, already retired from political activity, Señor Rodríguez was appointed *Conservador de Bienes Raíces* (real-estate custodian), a service in which he introduced numerous important reforms.

URUGUAY mourns the death of Dr. Pablo de María, one of her most prominent jurists, who died at Montevideo on October 5, 1932. Doctor de María, the son of Isidoro Navarrete, the first Uruguayan historian, and Sinforosa Navarrete, was born at Gualeguaychu, Argentina, on May 4, 1850. After finishing his primary studies at the College of the Esculapian Fathers he entered the Law School of the University of Montevideo, graduating in 1876. The 26-year-old lawyer was destined to become one of the most distinguished members of the faculty and later dean of the school in which he had studied, and for many years the rector of the university. He also served in the judiciary, in recognition of his ability and high professional standards was made a member of the Superior Court of Justice, serving as President of this institution—the supreme judicial authority of the country—until he reached the retiring age 12 years ago. As a parliamentarian he represented the Department of Rio Negro in the Senate



and was a member of the commission charged with drawing legal reforms, later introduced into civil codes and codes of procedure. An able journalist, he won prominence by his virile campaigns for civic reform as editor of *El Siglo*, in collaboration with José P. Ramírez, Julio Herrera y Obes, and Jacinto Albístur. His fugitive pieces—treatises, articles, and lectures, published in pamphlets, reviews, and the annals of the university—were being collected at the time of his death and will be published in a commemorative work.

The death of Daniel Hernández at Lima on October 23, 1932, marks the passing of one of the most illustrious of PERUVIAN painters. Born at Huancavelica on August 1, 1856, he went to Europe when 18 years old to continue the art studies which at a very early age he had begun in Lima. In 1885, after years of study in Rome, where he earned his livelihood by painting small pictures, he went to Paris and made that city his home for many years. Several of his paintings were hung in the *Salon* there, among them "By the Fireside," in 1893; "The Bath," in 1894; and "The Valley of Engerberg," in 1895. One of his best known paintings, "Idleness" ("La Perezosa"), was awarded prizes both at the exhibition in 1899 and at the world's fair the following year; it now hangs in Munich. In recognition of his work, he was made a Knight of the Legion of Honor.

During the later years of his life, Hernández devoted himself to portrait painting in Europe and America. His historical paintings, which belong to the same period, are also to be found on both sides of the Atlantic. Among these are portraits of San Martín, Bolívar, and Pizarro; that of Pizarro, which he presented to the city of Lima, won the grand prize and gold medal at the Ibero-American Exposition at Sevilla in 1929.

In 1918, the President of Peru, Dr. José Pardo, invited Hernández to return to Lima and establish a school of fine arts. He accepted, and the National Academy of Fine Arts was opened on April 15, 1919; from that date until his death he served as director of the institution.

The death of the Archbishop of Quito, Most Reverend Dr. Manuel María Pólit, has been deeply felt throughout ECUADOR. A distinguished jurist, educator, statesman, and writer, Doctor Pólit at the time of his death, October 28, 1932, was the president of the National Academy of Ecuador. Born at Quito in 1862, he studied in France and England, returning to Ecuador in 1881 where he received the degree of doctor in jurisprudence. From that date until he entered the priesthood in 1891, he practiced law, taught at the Central University in Quito, and was for several years a member of the Chamber of Deputies. He is the author of numerous treatises and monographs, his best-known historical work being "La Familia de Santa Teresa en América."



STANVA

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1933

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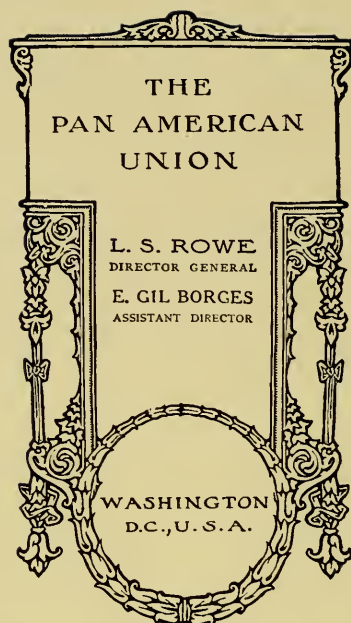
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Courtesy of the Embassy of Chile in the United States

HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR DON ARTURO ALESSANDRI, PRESIDENT OF CHILE

A former President, he was reelected last October and inaugurated December 24, 1932, for a 6-year term.



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## ARTURO ALESSANDRI PRESIDENT OF CHILE

ON DECEMBER 24, 1932, Don Arturo Alessandri was for the second time during his brilliant political career inaugurated President of the Republic of Chile after receiving one of the largest pluralities any candidate has ever obtained in a Chilean presidential election. Orator, jurist, legislator, and statesman, Señor Alessandri, as leader of the labor and middle classes, was the central figure when the unrest and dissatisfaction which developed in the second decade of the twentieth century marked the beginning of the difficulties of the modern era in Chile. To-day he is faced with the solution of the many problems resulting from the profound social and economic changes which Chile has since undergone as well as with those which are a reflection of the economic depression in the world at large. In this task he is not bound by the platform of any party or political group but has pledged himself to work for the welfare of the nation as a whole. In a statement made shortly after the results of the election were announced he declared: "I come into power as I promised my fellow citizens: without obligations of any kind to any individual or group. I have only one solemn obligation to the country: to serve its interests. I reiterate, therefore, my decision to form a national government that will reflect all sections of public opinion."<sup>1</sup>

Don Arturo Alessandri was born in Linares in 1868, the son of Don Pedro Alessandri and Doña Susana Palma. After completing his academic studies at the Colegio de los Padres Franceses and the Sacred Heart School at Santiago he obtained a position as head of one of the divisions of the National Library and during his leisure hours studied at the University of Chile. On January 2, 1893, he was graduated from the law school and soon became prominent among the

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<sup>1</sup> *El Mercurio*, Santiago, Nov. 2, 1932.



liberal youth of the country as a member of the Club del Progreso and the Liberal Party. His appointment as secretary of the convention which in 1896 nominated Federico Errázuriz for the presidency marked his entrance into public life. The following year he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, a post which he held until 1915, when he was elected to the Senate after a lively campaign in which his energy and vehemence won him the sobriquet of "The Lion of Tarapacá." During his legislative career he was thrice chosen to occupy a post in the cabinet: Minister of Industry and Public Works in 1908 and Minister of Finance in 1913, and in 1918 the triumph of the Liberal Party brought about his appointment to the Ministry of the Interior. During this period of his life two events served to bring out his qualities as one of the greatest of Chilean orators: His address at the Argentine Chamber of Deputies during the centenary celebration of 1910 and that at the Bolivian Congress in 1915 during the inaugural ceremonies of the Arica-La Paz railway. On both these occasions he represented the Chilean Congress.

After a hard-fought campaign in 1920 he was elected President on a platform of social, political, and economic reform. Inaugurated on December 24 of that year, Alessandri, who has often been called the first "man of the people" to become President of Chile, was faced by a no means easy task. The country was in the throes of the depression caused by the postwar collapse of the nitrate industry; the Senate, in the hands of the conservatives, opposed him; and in the Chamber the members of his own party were divided among themselves. Powerless to enact certain reform measures demanded in a joint ultimatum from the army and navy, he resigned on September 8, 1924, and departed for Europe, only to be shortly recalled to resume office. He arrived in Santiago on March 20, 1925, and on October 2, after a new constitution had been adopted and provision made for a general election under its terms, he again resigned and retired to private life. He now returns to office as the chosen leader of the nation.

It was during President Alessandri's last administration that the Fifth International Conference of American States met in Santiago. His eloquent address at the inaugural session on March 25, 1923, still lives in the memory of those who heard it.



## JUAN B. SACASA PRESIDENT OF NICARAGUA

**D**R. JUAN B. SACASA, inaugurated President of Nicaragua on January 1, 1933, for a 4-year term, is the third member of the Latin American diplomatic corps in Washington and the Governing Board of the Pan-American Union to be elected during the last two years to the chief magistracy of his country.

He was born in Leon on December 21, 1874, his parents being Dr. Roberto Sacasa, an eminent physician and former President of Nicaragua (1889-1893) and Doña Angela Sacasa, a member of one of the most distinguished Nicaraguan families. After completing his preparatory studies in the Instituto Nacional de Occidente, he came in 1889 to the United States, where he studied at Georgetown University in Washington and later at Columbia in New York. At the latter university he received his degree of doctor of medicine, and subsequently served his internship in various New York hospitals.

In 1902 he returned to Nicaragua and began to exercise his profession with marked success in his native city of Leon. In recognition of his high professional qualifications he was appointed professor at the School of Medicine of Nicaragua and later became dean of the school and president of the Superior Council of Health of his country. In all official capacities he was active in promoting practical measures for public health.

In 1919 Doctor Sacasa, together with Don Salvador Calderón Ramírez, was sent by the coalition parties of Nicaragua on a political mission to the Government of the United States, and in 1923 he was nominated by the Liberal Party for the presidency of the Republic. In order to preserve unity and harmony among his fellow citizens he yielded his candidacy to a member of the Conservative Party, Don Carlos Solórzano, accepting the nomination to the Vice Presidency. In the elections of 1924 Don Carlos Solórzano and Doctor Sacasa were elected President and Vice President of Nicaragua, respectively, but in 1925 the Government was overthrown by a *coup d'état*. The civil war which ensued was terminated through the Pacts of Tipitapa, by which, through the good offices of the United States, both Conservatives and Liberals agreed to discontinue hostilities and



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HIS EXCELLENCY DR. JUAN B. SACASA, PRESIDENT OF NICARAGUA

His inauguration for a 4-year term took place January 1, 1933.

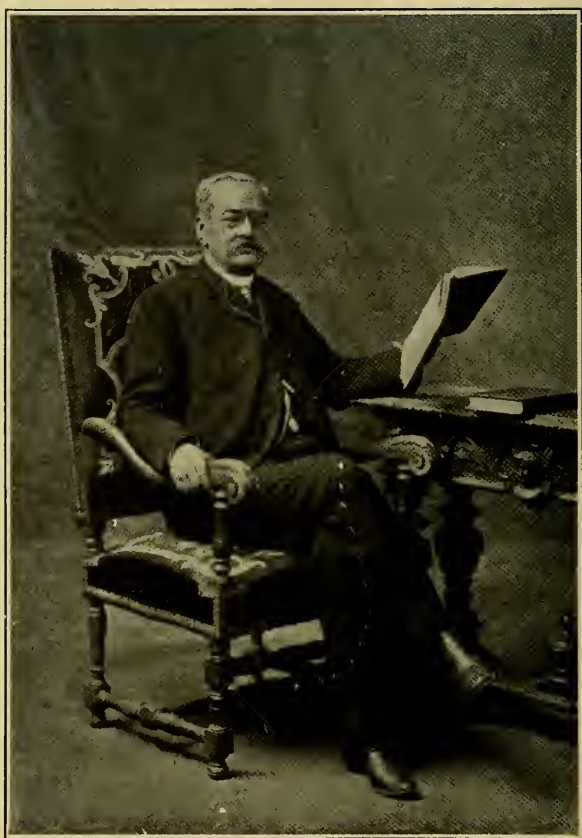
await the results of a supervised presidential election. General José María Moncada,<sup>1</sup> who had headed the Liberal forces in the field, was elected President for the period 1929–1932 and Doctor Sacasa was summoned to cooperate with his Government in the capacity of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Nicaragua to the United States. He presented his letters of credence on April 15, 1929, and until a few months before the elections on November 6 of last year remained in Washington, where his pleasing personality and exceptional talents won him a host of friends in social, governmental, and diplomatic circles.

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<sup>1</sup> See the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, February, 1929.







RICARDO PALMA

The centenary of the birth of this noted chronicler and poet, who by his writings has perpetuated Peruvian traditions, will be fittingly celebrated by the Spanish-speaking world on February 7, 1933. Born in Lima, he died in the same city October 6, 1919. A distinguished philologist and librarian, he was also Director of the National Library of Lima for 28 years.

# RICARDO PALMA

1833—FEBRUARY 7—1933

## VIGNETTE

By JOSÉ GÁLVEZ

“LET me make the songs of a nation and I care not who makes its laws,” is an oft-quoted saying. Let me record the legends of my city, Palma might well have said, and through all the changes decreed by legislators my creation will endure, the inspired evocation of an age which is no more, but which will live forever in the pleasant tales which I drew from time-worn parchments, an ironical smile on my lips and a glowing happiness in my soul.

Thus it was. In his *Traditions* Palma incarnates the spirit of the ancient city. His playful phrase, his delicate malice, his devout pilgrimage along forgotten paths where promenade beruffled cavaliers and ladies of pervasive charm, were never failing. No other Peruvian has held converse with so many human beings, nor traveled so many bypaths and lanes, nor witnessed so many adventures as the inimitable master who, in his racy style, gave us the enchanting picture of what our colonial life was, or, even better, of what it should have been. No other assembled so delightful a gathering or presented to us so many illustrious casuists, so many indolent and conceited friars, so many proud knights, so many sparkling mestizas, so many great gentlemen who, under the marvelous spell of our creole author, greet us with outstretched hand, make some witty remark, or terrify us by their vivid account of a tragic adventure.

Lima lives in Palma. His Lima is the best, the truest, the most really ours; the one which we all love; for which the old sigh; which, seen from a distance, is like a charming veiled lady who, after mass, awaits in the church vestibule the Don Juanesque compliment of the proud and elegant gallant, or the refined and subtle wooing of a student at San Felipe.

And because Palma is Lima, the very essence of the viceroyalty and the Republic, he is also the essence of Peru, for while the graces of long ago are passing, driven out by floods of vacuous modernisms, they do survive in our mountain villages, where the classic type of the past still lives and the slow rhythm of colonial times lingers in the dreamy and reposeful life, similar to that of the Lima of old.

Possessor of a delightful style, truly Peruvian in choice of subject, creole in his typical genius, Palma has, besides the essential characteristics which make him the most Peruvian of our authors, a universal sense of the romantic and of human irony, as well as a Voltairean philosophy, whereby he shares both the scepticism of the nineteenth century and the consuming love of legend of the men of '48. He penetrated to the very roots of his people, to the very core of humanity. The best known of our writers because of his national subjects, he is also the most truly Peruvian.

Every city of legend has its bard, who magically summons it out of the past; who from trifling and fugitive facts can evoke airy, ideal forms whose eternal enchantments glorify humanity. What really survives of Lima is what Palma created. A century ago he was born, as are we all, to grow, suffer, and return to the dust of which Holy Writ tells us. But when he set down the legends of his beloved Lima he became a definite part of it, as immortal as his work. Pizarro founded the city, but Palma gave it a soul. The Spanish monarchs ennobled Lima with three crowns, but Palma surrounded it with an immortal halo of poetry.



## INVOCACIÓN A PALMA

(Fragmento)

Viejo, glorioso viejo de nuestras Tradiciones,  
desde la gloria donde tu última esencia está,  
desciende a ver el triunfo de tus evocaciones,  
mientras se abren en rosas todos los corazones  
y, blanca de jazmines, te espera tu ciudad.

Salen a recibirte Virreyes y Tapadas,  
los ñorbos, por mirarte, cimbran el barandal,  
y el viento trae un chisme romántico de espadas,  
envuelto en un aroma de huertas encantadas,  
de templo y en fragancia de místico rosal.

Dicen los pregoneros las pragmáticas reales,  
se oye de las limeñas el sonoro motín,  
y va tu picardía bordando madrigales,  
mientras se alzan al cielo los broncees conventuales,  
y las guitarras lloran en un claro jardín.

Pasan altivas damas que sostienen sus fueros,  
las aventuras líricas de un Virrey trovador,  
conquistadores fieros y dulces misioneros,  
criollas que arrebatan su luz a los luceros  
y Virreyes que se hacen gobernar del amor!

Te hace una venia clásica la Virreina donosa  
que gobernó estas tierras doradas del Perú,  
y eleva su plegaria, férvida y armoniosa,  
por tí, Ricardo Palma, aquella Santa Rosa  
que ha perfumado todo lo que creaste tú.

Por tu presencia todo se anima; los rincones  
de la ciudad nos dicen su historia y su blasón,  
y entre las celosías de los moros balcones,  
los ojos, como estrellas, atraen ilusiones  
y hacen temblar el corazón!

El ayer se hace cálido, viviente, deslumbrante,  
el milagro se cumple en un nuevo nacer.  
¡Conquista! ¡Virreinato! ¡Epopeya gigante  
de libertad! Se acerca todo lo que es distante  
y es con nosotros el ayer!

—JOSÉ GÁLVEZ.



# THE COUNTESS'S POWDER<sup>1</sup>

## A CHRONICLE OF THE FOURTEENTH VICEROY OF PERU

By RICARDO PALMA

### I

ONE afternoon in June, 1631, the bells of all the Lima churches were tolling in supplication, and the monks of the four religious orders, assembled in full choir, were intoning psalms and prayers.

The inhabitants of the three-crowned city might have been seen crossing the spaces where, 60 years later, the Count of Monclova, as viceroy, was to erect the arcades of Escribanos and Botoneros; their destination was the side door of the palace.

Here there was a constant coming and going of more or less notable personages.

One would have said, such was the excitement in palace and populace, that a galleon with most important news from Spain had just anchored at Callao, or that, as in our democratic days, one of those theatrical coups, which the justice of rope and fire soon terminates, was being effected.

Events, like water, should be tasted at the source; and therefore, with permission of the captain of arquebusiers on guard at the afore-said door, we shall penetrate, reader, if my company please you, to a chamber of the palace.

Here were to be found His Excellency Señor Don Luis Jerónimo Fernández de Cabrera Bobadilla y Mendoza, Count of Chinchón, viceroy of these lands of Peru in representation of His Majesty Philip IV, and his intimate friend the Marquis of Corpa. Both were silent and looked anxiously towards a small door which, on opening, gave entrance to a new personage.

This was an elderly man. He was dressed in black broadcloth smallclothes, velvet shoes with silver buckles, and a long coat and waistcoat of velvet, from which latter hung a heavy silver chain with ornate seals. If we add that he wore chamois gloves, the reader will recognize the perfect type of a disciple of Aesculapius in that period.

Dr. Juan de Vega, a native of Catalonia who had recently arrived in Peru as physician to the viceroy's household, was one of the lights of that science which teaches killing by prescription.

"Well, Don Juan?" asked the viceroy, more by look than by word.

"Sir, there is no hope. Only a miracle can save Doña Francisca."

And Don Juan retired with a mournful air.

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<sup>1</sup> Translated in homage to the memory of Palma from Vol. I of his "Tradiciones Peruanas," published under the auspices of the Government of Peru.

This short dialogue will suffice to inform the reader of the matter in hand.

The viceroy had arrived in Lima in January, 1629, followed two months later by his lovely young wife, Doña Francisca Henríquez de Ribera, whom he had had disembark in Paita in order that she should not be exposed to the dangers of a probable naval engagement with pirates. Some time later the vicereine had been attacked by tertian malaria, recognized by the Incas as endemic in the valley of the Rimac.

It is well known that when, in 1378, Pachacutec sent an army of 30,000 from Cuzco to conquer Pachacamac, he lost the flower of his troops through the ravages of this fever. In the first centuries of European domination, the Spaniards in and about Lima also paid tribute to this dread disease, from which many recovered without using any known specific, and from which many others died.

The Countess of Chinchón was declared past recovery. Science had spoken through the mouth of its oracle Don Juan de Vega.

"So young and so fair!" said the disconsolate husband to his friend. "Poor Francisca! Who would have told you that you would never again see the Castilian sky or the gardens of Granada? Vouchsafe a miracle, Lord, a miracle!"

"The countess will be saved, Your Excellency," replied a voice at the door of the room.

The viceroy turned in surprise. It was a priest, a follower of St. Ignatius of Loyola, who had uttered these consoling words.

The Count of Chinchón bowed to the Jesuit. The latter continued: "I wish to see the countess. Let Your Excellency have faith, and God will do the rest."

The viceroy conducted the priest to the couch of the dying woman.

## II

Let us suspend our story to sketch a picture of the times during the rule of Don Luis Jerónimo Fernández de Cabrera, a son of Madrid, Commendador of Criptana in the Order of Santiago, governor of the palace at Segovia, treasurer of Aragon, and fourth Count of Chinchón, who was viceroy of Peru from January 14, 1629, to January 18, 1639.

The Pacific being menaced by the Portuguese and by the fleet of the Dutch pirate called "Wooden Foot," a large part of the activities of the Count of Chinchón was devoted to making Callao and the squadron ready for defense. Furthermore, he sent a thousand men to Chile against the Araucanians, and three expeditions against various tribes in distant Puno, Tucumán, and Paraguay.

To support the caprices and the luxury of Philip IV and his courtiers, America had to contribute heavily, to the detriment of her prosperity. The Lima merchants were obliged to pay excessive taxes and imposts.

From this time dates the decadence of the famous mines of Potosi and Huancavelica, as well as the discovery of the veins of precious ore at Bombon and Caylloma.

It was in this period that there occurred the famous failure of the banker Juan de la Cueva, in whose bank, says Lorente, both government and individuals had implicit confidence. This failure was commemorated until a short time ago by the dance called *Juan de la Cova, coscoroba*.

The Count of Chinchón was as fanatic as an early Christian. Many of his regulations prove this. No captain might receive passengers on board who could not present a certificate showing they had confessed and taken communion the night before. Soldiers were also obliged, by threat of severe penalties, to fulfill this obligation once a year, and in Lent men and women were forbidden to attend the same church.

As I have written in my *Anales de la Inquisición de Lima*, this was the epoch in which the implacable tribunal of the faith sacrificed the most victims. It was enough to be a Portuguese and have a fortune to be buried in the dungeons of the Holy Office. In one of the three autos de fe at which the Count of Chinchón was present 11 Portuguese Jews, wealthy Lima merchants, were burned.

The Duke of Frías writes that on the count's first visit to the prisons he was told of a suit against a gentleman from Quito, accused of having tried to foment an insurrection against the king. From the documents in the case the viceroy deduced that the whole affair was a calumny. He therefore ordered the prisoner to be set at liberty, authorized him to return to Quito and gave him six months in which to start an uprising in that region, it being understood that if he did not succeed, the accusers should pay the costs of the trial and the damages suffered by the gentleman. A clever way to punish envious men and vile informers!

His Excellency must have had some trouble with the ladies of Lima when, on two occasions, he issued a proclamation against the *tapadas*.<sup>2</sup> It must be acknowledged that they made the proclamations into curl-papers; to legislate against women has always been, and will always be, like preaching to the waves.

### III

One month later a great feast was given in the palace to celebrate the recovery of Doña Francisca.

The virtues of quinine as a febrifuge had been discovered.

The story goes that when an Indian in Loja, named Pedro de Leyva, was attacked by a fever, he sought to quench his thirst by drinking from the waters of a spring on whose edges grew several *quina* trees.

<sup>2</sup> See illustration, p. 81.

When he had thus been made well, he tried the experiment of giving others suffering from the same disease draughts from jars of water in which he had placed roots of quinine. Later he went to Lima and told his discovery to a Jesuit who, by curing the vicereine, rendered humanity a greater service than the friar who invented gunpowder.

For some years the Jesuits preserved the secret, and all who suffered from malaria had recourse to them. Consequently, for many years, powdered quinine bark was known as "the Jesuit powder."

Doctor Scrivener says that Mr. Talbot, an English physician, used quinine to cure the Prince of Condé, the dauphin, Colbert, and other notables, finally selling the secret to the French Government for a considerable sum and a life pension.

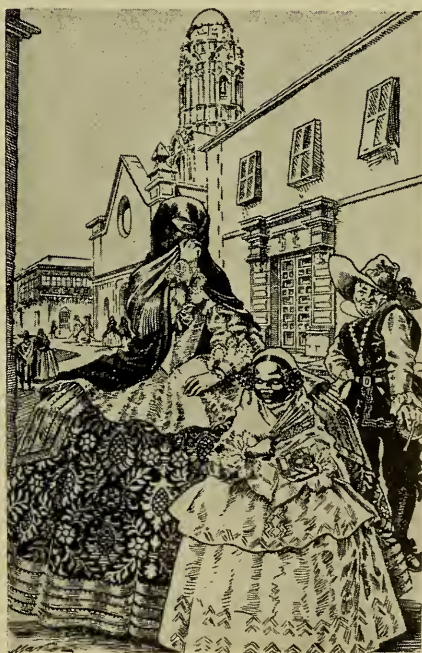
Linnæus, in homage to the Countess of Chinchón, gave to quinine its scientific name of *cinchona*.

Mendiburu tells us that at first the use of quinine encountered strong opposition in Europe, and that in Salamanca it was maintained that the physician who prescribed it was committing a deadly sin, because its virtues were due to a pact of the Peruvians with the devil.

As for the citizens of Lima, until a few years ago they called the medicine made from the bark of this wonderful tree "the Countess's powder."

#### A COQUETTISH "TAPADA" OF COLO- NIAL LIMA

Women of the seventeenth century who followed the fashion of draping shawls over their faces leaving but one eye exposed were known as "tapadas". (From a drawing by Fernando Marco in "Tradiciones Peruanas.")





# THE COMMERCIAL MUSEUM OF MEXICO<sup>1</sup>

THE Commercial Museum of Mexico, which took the place of the former *Museo Tecnológico Industrial*, founded in 1908, has been functioning since 1917 as a dependency of the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor. Its principal aim is to promote domestic and foreign trade in Mexican agricultural and manufactured products, to stimulate agriculture and industry in improving the quality of these products, and to make them better known among consumers at home and abroad. In performing this work the museum is rendering a signal service to the community and has become an important advertising medium as well as the most disinterested intermediary between producer and consumer.

As a Government institution the museum is in a position to offer advantages and facilities to the exhibitor which private organizations of a similar character can not grant. Thus, no charge is made for the exhibition of samples or for the use of the museum's information and advertising services. Samples may be exhibited for an indefinite period of time, provided the exhibitor is willing to change his exhibit whenever the directors of the museum request. The museum has collected technical and commercial data about the products to be seen in its halls, but, needless to say, great care is taken not to violate industrial or commercial secrets. From the various bureaus of the Department of Commerce it also obtains reports on the conditions of the markets for national products both at home and abroad. The museum in turn relays this information to interested parties, whether exhibitors or not, and puts national producers in direct contact with foreign importers. The samples of Mexican products necessary to establish these connections are sent without cost to the producer.

To complement this service the museum keeps on file statistics and industrial and commercial directories of Mexico and the principal foreign countries. These may be used by Mexican producers, exporters, and importers in search of markets or sources of supply.

Exhibits in the museum are grouped into the following sections:

1. Minerals and metals; extractive industries; metallurgical products; ceramics.
2. Vegetable textile fibers: Ramie, jute, ixtle, etc.
3. Cereals and other agricultural products; canned foodstuffs.
4. Cabinet woods and lumber; gums and resins; manufactured articles of wood and rubber.
5. Products of animal origin.
6. Products of the sea.
7. Chemicals, medicines, and perfumes.
8. Wines, liquors, beer, and table waters.

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<sup>1</sup> Translation of article received through the courtesy of Ingeniero Enrique Ortiz, Assistant Secretary of Industry, Commerce and Labor of Mexico.

9. Wearing apparel.

10. Cotton, wool, and silk textiles.

Each exhibit, especially those of raw materials, has a descriptive label showing the scientific and common name of the product, the location where it was produced, its qualities and uses, the name and address of the exhibitor, and any commercial data which he may supply.

THE COMMERCIAL MUSEUM OF MEXICO, MEXICO CITY

The museum is rendering a valuable service in the interest of all classes. The exhibit pictured includes minerals, metals, and other products of extractive industries.



At present the museum has 600 exhibitors, grouped chiefly as follows:

	Number of exhibitors
Metallurgical products.....	26
Ceramics and glass.....	17
Chemicals.....	54
Wines and liquors.....	41
Soap and perfumery.....	23
Agricultural and industrial products and canned fruits.....	60
Forestry products.....	70
Cigars and cigarettes.....	26
Textiles of all kinds.....	42
Wearing apparel.....	13
Leather goods.....	15
Handicrafts.....	28



# THE COMMERCIAL MUSEUM OF MEXICO

Upper: Exhibits of vegetable textile fibers and articles manufactured therefrom, agricultural products and canned foodstuffs. Lower: Specimens of fine woods and wood manufactures.



The remainder of the exhibitors are small industrialists or producers of raw materials.

The museum pays especial attention to educational exhibits showing the various processes which products undergo from the raw material to their conversion into manufactured articles and is making every effort to increase the number of these exhibits.

The library of the museum is open to the public. It contains scientific works on numerous industries, technical dictionaries and encyclopedias, books on industrial chemistry, reviews and magazines, and a large number of national and foreign catalogues showing all sorts of machinery and manufactures.

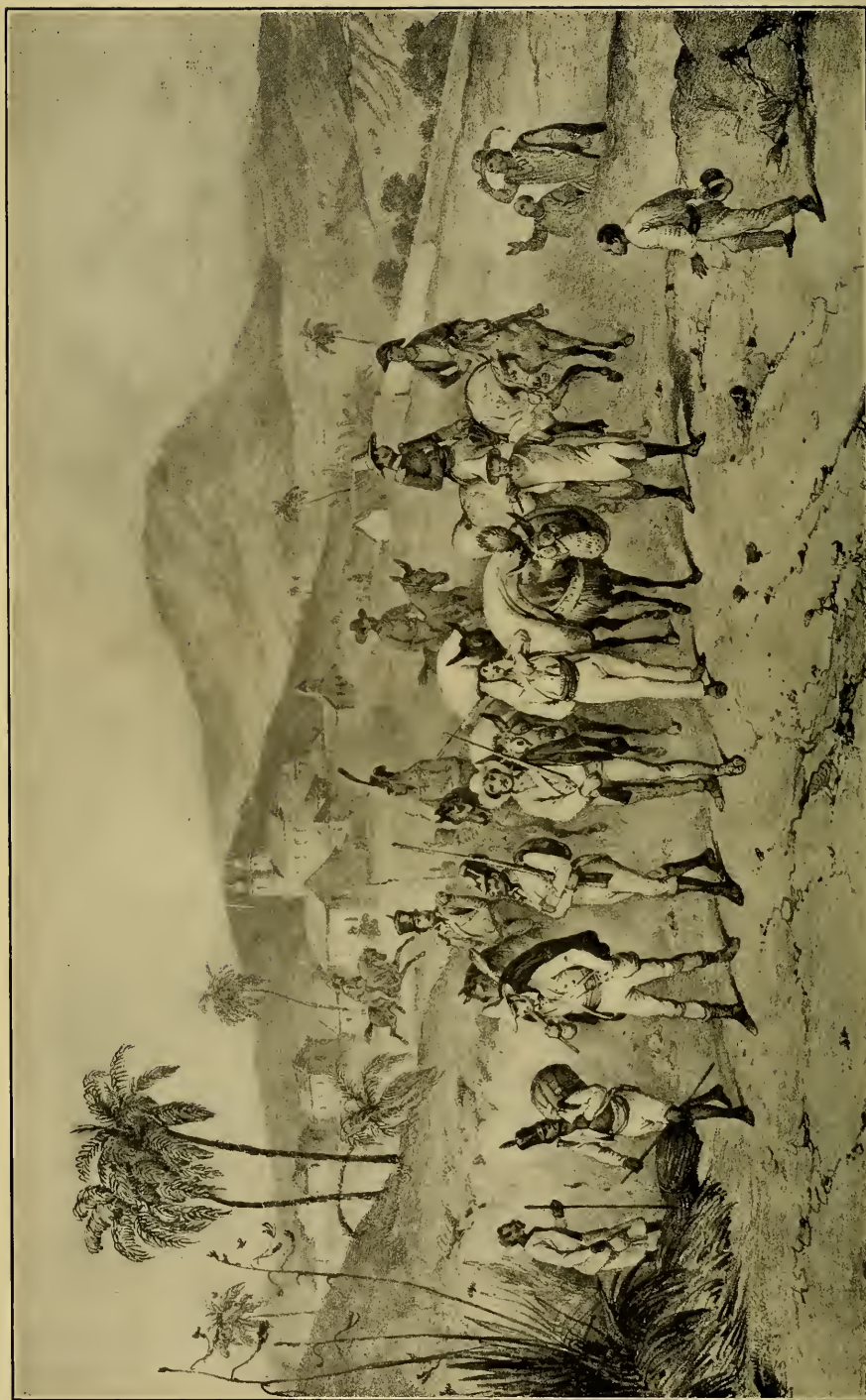
The commercial museum is also in charge of the preparation and shipment of exhibits for national and international sample fairs, as well as the organization of regional museums to exhibit the products of the zones in which they are located.



THE COMMERCIAL MUSEUM OF MEXICO

This case displays various fabrics produced by one of the large textile mills.





From an engraving published in 1835

### A CONVOY OF DIAMONDS FROM THE MINES OF BRAZIL

In the early days of diamond mining great precautions were taken in conveying the gems to the market, and armed escorts were provided for the mule trains on their long journeys to the coast.

# DIAMANTINA

## FIRST DIAMOND CENTER OF BRAZIL<sup>1</sup>

By ANNIE D'ARMOND MARCHANT

*Assistant Editor, Boletim da União Pan Americana*

AMONG the hills of northern Minas Geraes is the historical old town of Diamantina, center of the locality where, in 1727, diamonds were first discovered in Brazil. It was renowned for many years as the greatest diamond-producing region of the world.

The town originated under the name of Tejuco, at the beginning of the spectacular period of Brazilian gold mining, when dauntless explorers, notably the *Bandeirantes*<sup>2</sup> from São Paulo, pushed their way into the *capitania*, as each division of the new country was then called, toward the head waters of the Jequetinhonha and Arassuahy Rivers, through almost unsurmountable dangers and dire hardships. Steep jagged peaks, deep ravines, great roaring rivers, dense forests, wild beasts, fierce Indian tribes, and fever-infested marshes were some of the difficulties encountered by these fearless and hardy pioneers, to whom Brazil owes the opening up of vast tracts of her hinterland. Sleeping in the crevices of cliffs or on the sodden ground of the valleys, eating roots and berries when game and fish were not to be had, they practically lived the life of savages and in some cases adopted the customs and beliefs of friendly tribes and spoke their language.

The particular group of *bandeirantes* who were destined to be the founders of Tejuco, while skirting an extensive hill rising at the right of a river, finally came to an impasse, being forced to stop by a vast sea of mud stretching between river and hill. Here, they found themselves in a region so rich in gold that it far surpassed any gold region discovered up to that time elsewhere in the country, and here, needless to say, they decided to remain. Winding down the hill above the marsh came a bustling stream in search of the river below, and on the bank of this stream the gold seekers started their little

<sup>1</sup> Copyright, 1933, by Annie d'Armond Marchant. All rights reserved.

<sup>2</sup> The *Bandeirantes* in Brazil were those first explorers from São Paulo, who adopted the practice of forming bands, "bandeiras," each with its own chief, and setting out to explore the country, for the purpose of future habitation as well as the discovery of gold. The Portuguese word "bandeira" really means "flag," and was adopted because of the fact that each band carried the flag of the Kingdom. Radiating from São Paulo and penetrating to the far north, south, and west, the *Bandeirantes* were in reality destined to be the discoverers and settlers of central Brazil, which otherwise might have long remained unexplored and unpeopled by the whites. Minas Geraes, Goyaz, and Matto Grosso all owe their opening up and initial settlement to the *bandeirantes*. To-day *Bandeirante* is synonymous with *Paulista*, and is applied to all the people of the State of São Paulo, which is often referred to as *O Estado Bandeirante*.

settlement. They called the hill Santo Antonio and the stream Tejuco (Indian for *mud-flats*),<sup>3</sup> and this name, automatically, became the name of the new settlement.

Despite the great difficulties of communication, it was not long before news of the rich find had spread far and near and soon the attraction of the yellow metal was drawing thousands to the spot, which ere long became the scene of feverish activity. The king of Portugal established mining operations and many thousands of African slaves were employed in the works besides a great number of Indians captured by enslaving parties.

Gradually, substantial Portuguese dwellings peculiar to the colonial period began to replace the rude habitations of the pioneers, and in the course of time the village climbed to the hill top and spread out in the valleys below.

Then came the second great discovery. The region so lavish in gold was found to be profusely rich in diamonds. Lisbon rejoiced madly. The king assumed control, sending over as his special representatives *Intendentes*, veritable lords absolute in their domain, answerable to no one but the king himself. Gold mining was forbidden in the locality; diamonds assumed paramount importance and the little village of Tejuco became, in the course of time, the town of Diamantina. Immigration poured in from Portugal, the nobility as well as the rank and file braving the savage trail to fortune.

As time went by, and Brazil underwent her series of political changes, so did mining conditions change, and to-day diamond mining, having recovered from its feverish period, has settled down into a stable and more or less uniform industry.<sup>4</sup> In the last 200 years tons of diamonds have been exported from Brazil and are scattered pretty well all over the world. The great majority of these gems were mined in the region of Diamantina, and there, at every step, is written the story of the fantastic drama enacted in the past of this demure old town.

For Diamantina has had her moments. Scenes of such magnificence and splendor were cast in that wild rugged setting as to seem to belong rather to the realm of dreams and fiction than to that of history and real life; when the king's contractors lived like nabobs, casting away fortunes for whims, and dwelling in surroundings copied from royal Lisbon itself; when noblemen with powdered hair and ladies blazing with jewels filled the elegant ballrooms and danced the stately dances of the times. But she has had other times; times of suffering and oppression, times of tragedy and crime growing out of the fever of greed and the delirium of grandeur that possessed her.

<sup>3</sup> Many places in the interior of Brazil owe their Indian names to the white explorer.

<sup>4</sup> See "Diamond Production and Fields in Brazil," pp. 139-142.



But all of this was long ago, and in the tranquillity of her more than two centuries, the town to-day looks back on her stormy youth with unruffled serenity and a certain feminine vanity. Sitting high among her jagged hills, and spreading out over the valleys below, she guards her treasures of tradition—history, legend, romance—while the memories of her glories and adversities, mellowed and sweetened by time, and interwoven with the idealism and poetry of religion and nature, have thrown about her a soft veil of mystery which the bustle of the outside world can not dispel nor the uninitiated penetrate.



SERRO, NEAR DIAMANTINA

Serro is interesting because it was founded even earlier than Tejuco by a former company of "handeirantes." It preserved for the provincial division of the locality comprising Tejuco and the mineral lands thereabouts the meaning of the name by which the region was known to the Indians: *Ietituray*, or "cold mountains;" in Portuguese, *Serro Frio*. The name of the town itself was later shortened to Serro.

And this was her appeal to me. To visit her became a necessity. Yet merely to visit an old town with a past, or even the erstwhile greatest diamond center of the world, to be politely shown where this, that, or the other took place, to visit the mining operations and become acquainted with the process of extraction, lapidation, commercialization and so on, would no doubt be very interesting but was less than I aspired to. I must penetrate that intangible something which is the soul of the town, and understand the reactions of her people to their history and traditions; cease to be an outsider and breathe for a moment with them the incense of their past, thrill with them to the aspirations of the future. The transformation from outsider to "insider" in a conservative old town like Diamantina,



buttressed about with creed and custom, is in itself a delicate and mystic process. I must find a key.

Somehow it does not seem surprising that my first material contact with the distant past of the town came through an old Portuguese brass candlestick. I was dining one day in Rio de Janeiro with some very delightful Brazilian friends, natives of Diamantina and descendants of Brant, one of the most famous diamond contractors of old, whose name they bore. Suddenly something went wrong with the electric light and a candle was hastily procured for the occasion.

"What an interesting candlestick," I remarked.

"Oh, please do not look at that old thing; it was fished out of a lot of old rubbish just for the emergency."

"How old is it?"

"Probably nearly 200 years old. We brought it with us from Diamantina along with some other old family belongings."

"But it is beautiful."

Which the numerous youngsters around the table took as a good joke. But it was beautiful—an old grape design with graceful clusters of vine, leaf, and fruit.

The next time I visited there I was presented by 14-year-old Carlos with a neat little parcel inside of which was the candlestick. Now, it is the custom in Brazil, when you admire anyone's property, be it house, horse, dress, or whatnot, for the owner to say, "It is at your orders," upon which you answer, "It is in very good hands," or words to that effect. People tell of a foreigner who was not versed in this polite dialogue and calmly accepted, with thanks, a bit of personal property which the owner had no intention of getting rid of. But when a thing is wrapped up and handed to you the only thing to do is to accept gratefully, which I did, while voicing reluctance at depriving the family of the old relic.

"Oh," said my young friend, "mother wants you to have it; besides, there is another one around somewhere, so you need not think you are depriving her of anything."

But what did Carlos care about old candlesticks, anyway! His great desire was to go to Hollywood and perchance become a great actor, and his pet fad was collecting photographs of American movie actors and actresses.

A constant visitor in this family was a venerable and cherished uncle, the distinguished journalist and physician, Dr. Antonio Felicio dos Santos, who was related to Dr. Joaquim Felicio dos Santos, the notable writer and authority on all things connected with the history and development of Diamantina and the region of gold and diamonds thereabouts. Dr. Joaquim F. dos Santos, who was born in that region in 1828, and lived the greater part of his life in Diamantina, has written the most comprehensive, interesting, and authentic history of that

region, under the title of *Memoirs of the Diamond District* (*Memorias do Districto Diamantino*), from which some of the historical data in this present sketch are taken.

The Latin-America Publishing Committee of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation recently chosen the above work as one of Brazil's outstanding books to be included in its Ibero-American collection and had it translated into French by Manoel Gahisto, with a preface by the eminent Brazilian writer Affonso Celso.

My friend's uncle, who also was from the region of Diamantina, used to regale us by the hour with reminiscences of his youth and tales of old recounted by his illustrious kinsman, Doctor Felicio, and more and more the lure of the place took hold of me.

With Christmas came the kind fairy who was to lift the veil and initiate me into the inner circle of Diamantina life. This was Senhora Galvão, wife of Dr. Arroxellas Galvão, both distinguished journalists of Rio de Janeiro. As we met one day on the Avenida Rio Branco, she said: "I am glad we meet to-day. I am going to Diamantina to spend the Christmas holidays and at the same time have my little girls christened. Diamantina, as you know, is almost like home to me; I have a sister living there, and, as my mother is staying with her, it will be a fine opportunity to see them all and enjoy a change as well. And I want to ask you to come with me." (My dream coming true!)

"But, my dear, how will your sister receive this invasion of an outsider?"

"As my friend, you could not possibly be an outsider. Besides, my sister wants to know you. You will come?"

"You come to me on Rio's hottest day, during holidays, and ask me to go with you to Diamantina of all places, and enjoy the privilege of the hospitality of your family and the delightful coolness of 4,000 feet above sea level!"

"Correct in every detail."

"And what do you expect me to say?"

"Only that you will come."

Three days before Christmas we were at the Dom Pedro Segundo Station ready to start on our long ascent into the interior of Minas Geraes. "We" meant, besides my friend and myself, her husband, their little boy and girl, Galucio and Glyssia, another friend, and the nurse.

We broke our journey next day at Bello Horizonte, the capital of the State, built to order on a grand modern style. Broad avenues, magnificent public buildings, parks, and trees galore—a garden city—and remarkably in keeping with its name, Beautiful Horizon. On all sides the view stretches away to far mountains that melt into the horizon, veiled by the haze of distance. Here my friend's husband

left us to return to Rio, while we resumed our journey to still higher regions.

Morning meant a hasty rising and a change to another train. Then we were off on the last lap of our journey, traveling through scenery brusquely and aggressively different. Gone were the rolling hills billowing away in graceful curves and cadences; the endless grazing lands, with their herds of cattle and their monotonous sequence of great ovenlike ant hills; the soothing pastoral scenes of cattle wading knee-deep in wide, lazy streams. Suddenly nature swung into a new tempo, rough and startling, tuned to staccatos and discords. Steep mountains and sudden depressions forced the road into many sharp



BELLO HORIZONTE, CAPITAL OF MINAS GERAES

Built on a grand modern style, with broad avenues, magnificent buildings, parks and gardens and commanding distant views on all sides, this remarkable city fully justifies its name, "Beautiful Horizon."

turns and brought varied and unexpected effects. Turbulent streams dashed out from nowhere and as suddenly disappeared as we zigzagged around hill and valley.

Old Sol, though shining brightly, had lost his sting, and here and there travel-worn passengers were pulling on wraps against the insistent edge of the highly rarified air. As the engine panted up the steep incline, the wild beauty of the scene became more and more intensified, like a grand Wagnerian chorus, till we reached the Tocaia,<sup>5</sup> where it burst into one triumphant chord.

All were alert gazing out of the left windows.

"What is it?"

"We are nearing the Tocaia, look!"

<sup>5</sup> Ambuscade.



Suddenly the existing order of things dropped away. Flung wide in front of us was an immense basin, its distant rim those jagged mountains with their weird battlements. We ourselves were traveling along the near rim, and gazing far below into the bottom of the basin. Some one was saying "If . . ." The babies' nurse was telling her beads. Presently a rift in the rim appeared before us, and through this a magic vista of mountains beyond mountains, forest covered. On our right, in some places jagged peaks shot up, making rough walls that almost touched our windows.

And this was the Tocaia! The ambushade of olden times and the outlet from Diamantina to the world market outside, when trains were unknown and traffic was carried by mule back over the rough and dizzy pass. And surely a wonderful ambushade it was; hundreds of rocky clefts out of which to watch unseen for prey. Crown forces watching for smugglers, highwaymen watching for lawful traffic, or thief on the watch for thief. But now the iron horse is monarch of the Tocaia pass, and all such creepy things have ceased to be. To-day anyone properly qualified may buy him a piece of land and freely go about the business of shaking his *batêa* (wooden bowl for washing gravel) till fortune smiles upon him or till he has spent his life in the weary chase of the capricious one.

We were off the pass, and there, clustered on the hilltop and scattered in the valley below was Diamantina, which a local poet has compared to a "flock of sheep browsing on the hillside."

And there we were at the station at last, and there were our smiling hosts, Doctor and Senhora Soter de Couto, and the babies with their jet-black nurse, and the crowd of friends and the general hubbub of family greetings and effusions. And there was I, the stranger, being initiated into the community on the magic password of "My friend."

Christmas Day in a spacious old home on one of the most historical squares, surrounded by all the charm of proverbial Brazilian hospitality—a delightful time to rest from the fatigue of the journey and become acquainted with the different members of the household and meet the various relatives and intimate friends who dropped in from time to time. Our host was the popular physician of the town, where he was born; our bright young hostess was intensely interested in his profession and had taken up the study of puericulture, in order to help the mothers with their babies.

After a few days Diamantina began to seem quite familiar with its steep, narrow streets on the hillside, broad plateau at the top, and wide surrounding valleys. Almost in its entirety, the old town on the hill is composed of its first houses, built in the massive Portuguese style of colonial times, some elaborated with spacious halls, high ceilings, and curious old Portuguese ornamentation.

Wherever it is possible to have one there is a square, and on every square a church. But there are churches everywhere, some stately



and circumspect with an old-world dignity, containing notable examples of the art that flourished in Brazil in colonial and imperial times, others more simple and austere, a few in ruins. On the hills around about, great crosses, clear cut against the sky.

In the business streets diamond dealers and jewelers prevail. The practice of many generations in the manipulation of gold and silver, diamonds and semiprecious stones, such as tourmalines, aquamarines, and others, and the delicate artistry of jewelry making seem to have given these craftsmen a fine sense of symmetry and a keen artistic taste, and much beautiful jewelry is manufactured in the town.



THE BATEA IN OPERATION

[The batea, or miner's pan, is filled with gravel and rotated rapidly on the surface of the stream. The diamonds remain in the center of the batea, while the dirt is thrown to the side.

As may naturally be imagined, the diamond has not fallen under that proverbial contempt which familiarity is supposed to breed, here in its native haunts where men dig it out of the ground, or, standing knee deep in the river slush, scoop it up along with dirt and rubbish; where you see it stacked up in the rough or being polished and cut—civilized for going out into the world. Nevertheless, here it is not so much a *de luxe* article as it is farther from home, but a valuable and necessary factor in the economy of the town. Very curious indeed are the common stones and pebbles, called satellites, and valued as pilots to indicate localities where the diamond may be in hiding. Classified and labeled in separate jars, these plebeian

traitors to the royal whereabouts certainly present a unique appearance and justify the names by which they go—"black beans," "yellow beans," "straws," and so on *ad infinitum*. Most curious of all are the *cativos*, heavy, black, shiny octagonal stones, imitating the diamond perfectly in shape, and said to be in fact its very near relatives which either lacked opportunity, or never had it in them to make good and crystallize, and so became the black sheep of the family.

Some distance out from town lay the diamond fields. Alas the diamond fields! For we were destined not to see them. Heavy rains put an end to an all-day excursion on horseback that we had planned to take at the invitation of one of the principal managers. But the disappointment was not acute, for to us the old town itself was the rare gem, or quintessence, so to speak, of all those gems to which it owed its existence.

Scattered about everywhere were the material evidences that keep alive the traditions of the past. Many of these stories circle around the various *intendentes* and their dealings with the people, or the immense wealth and fantastic display of the contractors and often their downfall and utter ruin. For the contractor's life was full of vicissitudes and uncertainty and there were always envious eyes to watch his goings and comings and ready tongues to convey his every shortcoming, real or imaginary, to the king.

One of the most famous contractors was Felisberto Caldeira Brant. Urbane, generous, quick tempered and lavish, negligent in enforcing rules and lax to a degree in punishing the offender, he soon became extremely popular, and his name marks the most brilliant and cultured period of Diamantina's social life. Nevertheless, he was whisked off almost from one day to the next to Portugal, where he was cast in prison. After some time the great Lisbon earthquake shook down the walls of his prison, killing many prisoners and releasing others, who immediately escaped in the general panic. Brant, however, who was unhurt, presented himself as soon as possible to the king's minister, the Marquis of Pombal, demanding to know his next destination. The Minister was touched by Brant's spirit of honor in not attempting to escape and, convinced by this time that his imprisonment was the result of intrigue, gave him his freedom. Completely broken in health, he retired to a watering place near Lisbon, where he died after five years. His vast fortune, however, which had been unjustly confiscated by the crown, was never restored to his descendents, some of whom to-day are among Brazil's most distinguished citizens.

The Intendente João Ignacio, who goes down in history as the last of the despotic rulers of Diamantina, brought about his own downfall by the extreme ruthlessness of his conduct. The unbearable

duress put upon the people by him reached such a point that, finally, goaded to despair, the outstanding citizens met in secret conclave and sent an envoy to Lisbon to plead their cause with the Prince Regent. The Prince issued an order to the Governor of Minas Geraes to investigate the situation and subsequently João Ignacio was deprived of his office and removed from Diamantina.

The people, wild with excitement, celebrated the event with unrestrained joy. In honor of the Governor a great ball was given in one of the most imposing mansions of the town, surrounded by



Courtesy of Dr. Nestor Rangel Pestana

#### IN PICTURESQUE OLD OURO PRETO

This city, which was formerly called Villa Rica, was the first capital of the State of Minas Geraes.

parks, gardens, fountains, and artificial pools. Unfortunately this old monument of those feudal times is now in ruins.

A description of this ball, written at that time (July, 1801), is interesting as giving an idea of the magnificence and fantastic display that characterized that period of Diamantina history and the rapidity with which the people expanded with joy when free for a moment from the hand of oppression. Following is the description:

More than 8,000 lights illumined the garden; the avenues of trees were carefully swept and covered with fine white sand; pools, like giant mirrors lying on the ground, reflected the myriad lights; from illumined fountains poured threads of silver shot with glistening pearls, while overhead was the dark and lofty dome of



the interlocking branches of great trees. Two bands of music, one from Villa Rica<sup>6</sup> and one from Tejuco,<sup>7</sup> played without intermission.

About the spacious avenues promenaded happy crowds, whose faces beamed with an inner joy, as they laughed, conversed, and enthusiastically acclaimed the governor. Truly, a varied and enchanting scene of pleasure. Two great ball-rooms brilliantly lighted and magnificently furnished overflowed with the great of the land. Elegant gentlemen and beautiful ladies danced the minuet, the contradance and the gay and vivacious waltzes so dear to the heart of these dance-loving, music-loving people of Tejuco.

In another vast salon was a long table covered with delicacies of every kind. Arm in arm, the couples approached the table to the strains of a march, and His Excellency the Governor was placed at the head of the table.

After the banquet healths were drunk, poems recited, speeches made, and then the dance went on till the morning.

And this was only one of such affairs to celebrate the occasion.

A unique feature of the festival was that all the ladies wore around their necks a fine gold chain from which hung small star-shaped bows of black ribbon. It seems that all the petitions sent to the Prince Regent or the Governor against João Ignacio were tied with black ribbon in sign of mourning. When the affair was settled the Governor handed these ribbons back to the people's representative, Doctor Soares, and he distributed them among the ladies, who conceived this idea of wearing them in honor of the occasion.

One of the most constructive and popular *intendentes* was Manoel Ferreira da Camara, the first Brazilian to hold the post. In grandeur, however, he was not behind his Portuguese predecessors. Choosing a spot in the midst of the forest, he there established his palace and grounds with the fastidious taste of a connoisseur. Combining practicality with luxury, however, he imported many choice plants and cultivated extensive flower gardens and vegetable gardens, by means of which he taught his people the newest agricultural methods. Being of a genial disposition, he often turned his magnificent grounds over to popular festivities. Little remains to mark the spot to-day unless perhaps his wine cellar, which he had blasted out of a solid rock and where the fine wines and liqueurs which were lavishly supplied from Portugal were kept cool in the hottest weather.

Many more tales might be told of the past; but what of the present and future of Diamantina and all that region of Minas Geraes, called the jewel case of Brazil, which for so many years has yielded unstintingly the precious treasures of its soil? Our host's father, former President of the Municipal Chamber and one of the principal jewelers of Diamantina, where most of his 8 or 10 children were settled, in discussing the subject, predicted for this part of Minas a flourishing future, in which the safe and sound business of agriculture,

<sup>6</sup> Now Ouro Preto.

<sup>7</sup> Even to-day the inhabitants like to call the place by its old name.



cattle raising, and fruit growing and the wine and silk industries would compete with mining as economic sources of income.

Diamantina, however, despite the decided spirit of progress everywhere present, is essentially a secluded and unique old town, and one would not want her otherwise or wish to see dispelled the aura of a past that played so vital a part in the formation of Brazilian nationality. The fever that racked her and the subsequent period of



AN EXAMPLE OF COLONIAL WOOD CARVING

This door is found in Marianna, one of the oldest towns in Minas Geraes.

Courtesy of Dr. Nestor Rangel Pestana

decadence being now things of the past, she may enjoy in peace the residue of the fabulous wealth to which she was born and which, in dazzling streams of gold and precious stones, poured for years into the coffers of Lisbon.

The venturesome spirit inherited from those fearless Paulista pioneers, tempered by an all-pervading aura of religion and gilded by the reflected pomp and glamor of the courts of Lisbon, plus the lure of past traditions and the rugged beauty of the surrounding country, have all contributed toward the combination of brilliancy, poetical

mysticism, and love of beauty that characterizes the people. Add to this a pronounced spirit of independence, from the poorest up, a droll sense of humor, a dash of recklessness, and a great civic pride, and you have the *Diamantinense*. This and a tendency to have hobbies—flowers, poetry, art—something to offset the business of diamond getting, something soothing and inspirational. It is not surprising that out of Diamantina should have come a number of those first pioneers of liberty who conspired with Tiradentes for the independence of Brazil, soon after the Declaration of Independence in the United States.<sup>8</sup>

On the strength of my friend's intimate association with the place, it was my good fortune to meet there many delightful people, who in due time called on us. Town authorities, diamond people, the first families, and just people. In big cities like Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, one may ignore many little social amenities or allow them to be crowded out by a number of things. Not so in the old towns tucked away in the interior, where many charming attentions and customs are still rigorously observed. It was delightful to enter into these gracious manifestations of friendship as we returned, in the prescribed time and manner, each visit received. Often immediately after our visit, flowers, fruit, or wine were sent by the one visited, a sort of message of thanks for the visit—for here the host thanks the visitor for the pleasure accorded, not the visitor the host.

On our social programme for those two weeks also figured a christening, a wedding, a picnic, and a ball, by which it would seem that we were fast becoming part and parcel of the community.

All too soon came our last day, with a thousand things yet to be done. Last visits to be received, last messages given, last places visited, hurriedly, on the wing. And already the regret of leaving loomed large ahead. Yesterday, Diamantina had been a mysterious old town, yielding gold and precious stones, to be visited out of curiosity. To-morrow it would be a memory of gracious and lasting associations, to be thought of with *saudades*!<sup>10</sup>

Came the day of departure and the hustle and bustle of travel. *Things* held the spot light. Where to put this, and where to put that! Those luscious mangoes must have a basket of their own, where they would not crush our more delicate store of grapes. Off went the black maid to upset something in the kitchen in order to procure the desired basket. Then those fine Minas cheeses, for which the place is so justly celebrated, and several large squares or bricks of *rapadura*. What is that, you say? A kind of concentrated form of sugar out of which delicious syrup is made. Then a number of relics from here

<sup>8</sup> See "Washington's Influence on the early Spirit of Independence in Brazil," by Annie d'Armond Marchant in BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION for July, 1932.

<sup>10</sup> Pronounced with both a's broad, accent on the second a. This musical Portuguese word expresses to perfection that haunting nostalgia of remembrance, so difficult to define. Like "home" in English, "saudade" in Portuguese has no adequate equivalent in any other language.

and there. "And that reminds me," says the doctor, "you were admiring those old Portuguese pine apple ornaments, I bet I could knock one of them down somewhere for you." "*Vade retro*—tempt me not to such vandalism!" And here is our hostess with a pretty aquamarine. "Something by which to remember Diamantina." As if any remembrance more sparkling than that of her own delightful hospitality could be desired.

The babies were squeezed, petted, and kissed good-bye. Little Edila, the eldest daughter of the house, had retired under a bed at the last, to escape the ordeal of cruel good-byes. The fond grandmother was again torn between her two daughters and their babies.



Courtesy of Dr. Nestor Rangel Pestana

THE CITY HALL, MARIANNA, MINAS GERAES

This structure is a good example of Brazilian colonial architecture.

Finally we were indeed settled, trying to say through the train windows to our friends on the platform all the things that had been left unsaid up to that moment. Some one was saying to me, the erstwhile stranger, "Come again, the doors and hearts of Diamantina are open to you!"

The train moved away—"Adeus, adeus, boa viagem!"—gained momentum, fluttering handkerchiefs disappeared in the distance, soon the "flock of sheep browsing on the hilltop" was hidden by another hill.

"Good-bye, Diamantina, entrenched among your hills, dreaming your dreams; digging your diamonds that you may enjoy your seclusion while in the world outside others dig and toil that they may enjoy your diamonds. Good-bye and thank you!"



# FRUIT-STORE PUZZLES: TROPICAL DELICACIES FINDING NEW FRIENDS

By T. RALPH ROBINSON

*Senior Physiologist, Division of Horticultural Crops and Diseases, Bureau of Plant Industry, United States Department of Agriculture*

NEW and strange fruits are finding their way into the fancy fruit stores of the United States, often causing the customer to exclaim: "What is it?"

This growing demand for fruit novelties of tropical origin is being stimulated by the American habit—almost a disease—of *wanderlust*. Round-the-world-tourists touching at Habana, Panama, Honolulu, Hong Kong, Manila, Singapore, and similar exotic trading centers become familiar with strange and delicious fruits of the Tropics and eagerly look for them in our own fruit stores on their return to the United States.

Florida and California with their subtropical climates can not produce all of these tender fruits, but many of them are being tried out and some of them are already being produced in quantities to supply a limited demand. With the aid of Puerto Rico, Cuba, the Virgin Islands, Panama, and other Pan American countries, brought close to our markets by airplane, practically all the best tropical fruits should eventually be available to connoisseurs.

## THE MANGO

The mango, often called the "king of fruits," perhaps takes the lead among them. The fruit of the best varieties most nearly reminds one of a large somewhat flattened and very tender and juicy peach, but with a fragrance and spicy flavor not to be found in any other fruit. Common seedlings are generally too strong with a turpentine flavor and contain too much fiber to be relished by the uninitiated, but only the improved varieties, free from fiber and turpentine, are usually sent to market.

The fruit is borne on a magnificent evergreen tree having a round top of glossy leaves. It stands little cold and can be grown only in the warmer portions of Florida. The fruit matures from June to August, is usually peeled and sliced for serving, and like a peach must be consumed within about a week from the time of picking. This means careful handling and quick transportation, with customers ready to take the fruit promptly on arrival.





MANGO TREE AND FRUIT

The mango, frequently known as the "king of fruits," is a native of tropical Asia, though cultivated extensively in the tropical and subtropical regions of the Americas. The tree, a splendid evergreen, grows to a height of 30 to 40 feet.

#### THE PAPAYA

One of the most spectacular fruits of the Tropics is the papaya, often called "papaw" or "tree melon." It is an astonishing sight to see a plant with a single stem 10 to 15 feet high, only a year or two old, bearing closely attached to the rather slender stem several dozen fruits resembling large, elongated cantaloupes. The fruits ripen in succession, beginning with the lower tier. They are commonly served in much the same manner as cantaloupes—either as a breakfast fruit, or as a salad or dessert. The addition of a little salt and lemon or lime juice is usually found agreeable. The papaya is remarkable for its content of a powerful digestive ferment, papain, similar in its action to pepsin, and the fruit is greatly prized as an aid to digestion, as well as for its pleasant taste.

The papaya is also easily injured by cold but is being grown in the warmer portions of Florida, southern Texas, and California, and occasionally is shipped to northern markets from Florida. Fruit ripens nearly all the year round, but develops the best flavor in the warmer months. The fruits are inclined to be rather variable in quality, due to seedling propagation, but the best varieties are both delicious and unique in flavor. The elimination of poor sorts and rapid transportation are the chief essentials in developing a strong demand for this healthful fruit, a native of the American Tropics.

#### THE PAPAYA

The tree, a native of the American tropics, is an abundant producer. The fruit, generally eaten in its raw state, is a source of papain, an ingredient utilized in various medicines.



#### THE AVOCADO

The avocado, sometimes called the "alligator pear," is no longer any novelty on our fruit stands. It is being grown commonly enough in both California and Florida so that the rich, buttery fruit is no longer a luxury. During the summer months imported avocados, largely from Cuba, dominate the Eastern markets.

The avocado is another of America's native fruits, and in food value it is in a class by itself. In oil content it far exceeds any other fresh fruit, making it a staple article of diet in the countries of its origin in Central America. The high oil content gives the fruit a

calory value, pound for pound, higher than many staple foods such as lean meat, eggs, or milk. The fresh fruit also has a high content of vitamins, all the vitamins from A to E having been found present in the smooth, creamy flesh.

The fruits are variable both in size and color, but the varieties shipped to our principal markets are usually green, pear shaped, and weigh about a pound to a pound and one-half. They should not be eaten until they are beginning to feel soft to the touch, though not mushy. Large fruits are usually served as a salad, sliced, after peeling and removing the single seed. Smaller fruits are simply cut in two lengthwise; lemon juice and salt are then placed in the seed



A BASKET OF GUATEMALAN AVOCADOS

A rough surface and thick skin are characteristics of the comparatively small Guatemalan variety. In recent years the demand for the delicious and nourishing avocado has increased enormously throughout the United States.

cavity and the soft pulp scooped out with a spoon. The pulp mashed up and mixed with cheese or condiments of various kinds makes a nutritious and delicious sandwich filling.

Since the avocado tree is somewhat more tender than the orange tree and is easily injured by windstorms, the fruit is not likely to be grown on such an extensive scale as to compete seriously with the other fruits of the United States.

#### THE SAPOTA

Under the general name of Sapota several different fruits are encountered in the tropics, some too tender for growing except in the real tropics. The so-called "white sapota" or Matasano is, however,



fairly hardy and is receiving considerable attention as a new fruit prospect in California and Florida. The fruits are about the size and shape of a tomato, yellowish or green in color; the better varieties have soft and very sweet flesh. The fruits from unselected seedlings are often rather bitter, but the propagation of selected varieties promises soon to make available dependable fruit free from objectionable features. The so-called *Mamey sapote* familiar to visitors in Habana is quite different. The fruits are almost as large as a grapefruit, heart shaped, and russet brown in color, with a thick, scurfy rind. The spicy pulp is reddish in color and is especially adapted for use in sherbets. The trees are probably too tender to be raised commercially in the United States, though a few are growing in Florida.

#### THE SAPODILLA

Another related fruit, a native of tropical America, is the sapodilla. This is of special interest since the tree is valuable not only for its palatable fruits but also for the latex derived from its bark. This latex furnishes the chicle of commerce from which is prepared that potent aid to American happiness, chewing gum! The tree is a large, handsome evergreen with thick, glossy green leaves. Since the wood is very durable, the tree serves three purposes, besides having an ornamental value. The fruit resembles a small russet apple and tastes somewhat like a pear sweetened with brown sugar. The granular flesh completes this resemblance to a brown-sugar mixture. The sapodilla, while tender, can be grown in the warmer portions of Florida, and keeps well enough to permit shipment to northern markets.

#### THE CHERIMOYA

The fruit with this peculiar name is about as odd in appearance as the name would indicate. The surface of the rounded fruit, yellowish-green in color, appears to be made up of a series of coarse overlapping



Courtesy of Bureau of Plant Industry, United States Department of Agriculture

#### THE SAPODILLA

The *Achras zapota*, or "chico sapote" tree, is of commercial value, not only for the palatable fruit but for its latex, which is the basis of chewing gum.



scales or wartlike tubercles. This rough exterior, however, conceals a custardlike pulp, white and aromatic, usually eaten fresh and generally found very refreshing. The tree is fairly hardy, and is being cultivated with considerable success in California. Some of the close relatives of the cherimoya, such as the sugar apple, sour sop, and bullocks heart (belonging to the group of *Annonas*) are much more tender but are occasionally found fruiting in Florida.

The sour sop or guanabana is the most promising of the groups of cherimoya relatives for commercial planting—at least in regions practically frost free. It is unexcelled as a basis for cooling sherbets and ices, especially adapted to a warm climate. The tartness combined



CHERIMOYAS

This fruit, one of the group of *Annonas*, has sometimes been called "vegetable ice cream" because of its deliciously flavored white pulp of custardlike consistency.

with an aromatic spiciness reminds one of both the pineapple and the mango, but is unique. It is generally conceded to be of American origin.

#### THE ORIENTAL PERSIMMON

The name persimmon usually calls to mind, sometimes rather painfully, the small puckery fruits which grow wild in farm woodlots in the southeastern portion of the United States. The Oriental, or so-called "Japanese persimmon," a much larger fruit, is considered by many Japanese as their best native fruit. Some varieties produce fruit as large as a large orange, devoid of pucker or tannin when ripe, and usually brilliantly colored. The pulp of some varieties is so soft, sweet, and melting as to suggest a rich marmalade made of peach and

apricot; other varieties have flesh crisp like that of an apple. The tree is fairly hardy, thriving throughout the Gulf Coast States and in California, so that the smooth, handsome fruits are becoming fairly common visitors to our markets in the fall months, and deserve a larger share of our attention. The fruit of the soft varieties is peeled and eaten with a spoon, either as a breakfast fruit or as a dessert. The addition of cream makes an excellent combination.

#### THE CASHEW NUT

The cashew nut, formerly a rarity, has within the last few years become a common article in our markets, rivaling the pecan, walnut, and almond in popularity. The name "cashew nut" is a misnomer, the so-called nut being in appearance the seed of a fleshy fruit borne in clusters on a large evergreen tree native to the American tropics. Even more strange is the fact that this seed is attached to the out-



CASHEWS

Although the fruit is practically unknown in the United States, the nut, since its introduction a few years ago, has become a formidable rival of the more familiar nuts.

side, at the lower end of the fruit. Technically, the kidney-shaped seed with its delicious kernel is the true fruit, the fleshy portion being an enlargement of the peduncle. The fruit or "cashew apple" is yellow in color and makes an excellent sauce or preserve. The seed, which is delicious when roasted, is poisonous in a raw state. Needless to say, all cashew nuts are properly treated before being put on the market. While the cashew is a native of America, most of our supplies come from the East Indies. It is probably too tropical for commercial culture in the United States, although a few trees are known to have fruited in Florida. It thrives in Puerto Rico and throughout the West Indies.

#### THE LYCHEE

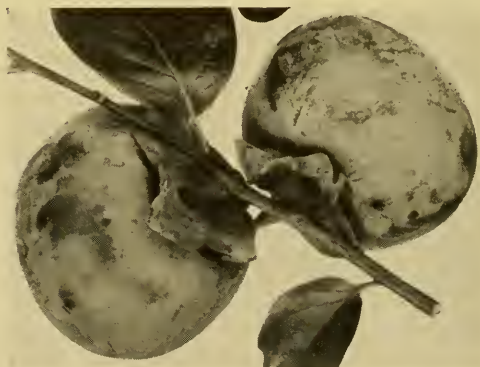
Diners at Chinese restaurants are usually served with their dessert a few so-called "lychee nuts." Inside a thin, papery shell the size

of a small plum is found a raisinlike dried fruit of a flavor most agreeable but unlike all other fruits. It is not, properly speaking, a nut, despite its papery shell covering, but the most highly prized fruit of certain regions in South China, the fruiting season being given over to a lychee festival. The ripe, deep crimson fruits hanging in clusters amid the slender, glossy green leaves of the tree make a sight almost unrivaled by any fruit crop of the world.

The fresh fruit is as delicious as the appearance of the tree indicates. With its thin shell removed it resembles a very large pearly white grape, but with a unique piquancy, sweet and spicy.

A few trees have fruited for several years in Florida and California, and in Hawaii the culture of the lychee is receiving considerable attention. It is also being tested out at a number of places in the West Indies and Central America. It is too tender to be grown except in almost frost-free regions, but with some protection the nuts may in time be produced in sufficient quantity to supply the fancy fruit stores of the United States.

The number of these tropical novelties is much too great to permit their discussion in a brief article. Their very names seem, however, to have romantic interest. Mentioning only a few may bring to some reader's mind the recollection of an ecstatic moment (or perhaps a moment not so happy) when tasting for the first time a fruit such as the mangosteen or the durian, the ceriman, the canistel, the feijoa, the Surinam cherry, the grumichama, the Natal plum, the carambola, the jaboticaba, the granadilla, the pomegranate, the tamarind or the amberella. Enough have been mentioned, perhaps, to indicate the almost infinite variety of these exotic products that await the attention of Americans, those inquisitive people, always ready for a new thrill.



# AGRICULTURAL POLICIES IN CUBA<sup>1</sup>

By JOSEPH C. ROCCA

A PROGRAM of reforms was outlined by the President of the Cuban Republic in a report attached to a decree of March 29, 1928, which instituted a National Commission of Economic Defense (Comisión Nacional de Defensa Económica) as a consulting organ of the Government in order to foster and to promote the economic development of the country. The report emphasized the necessity, for Cuba, of intensifying agricultural production in order to avoid the possibility of periodical crises in the sugar industry endangering the economic stabilization of the whole country. The present agricultural production is not sufficient for the needs of the population (the exports of sugar pay almost entirely for the heavy imports of foodstuffs and manufactured goods from the United States) . . .

The problem of avoiding sudden economic fluctuations and of finding the best ways to stabilize the markets, which draws the attention of many economists in this country, has a special importance for a small island like Cuba. It is well known, moreover, that Cuban economic life has been concentrated during the last years almost exclusively in the production of one commodity, sugar, and consequently, the risks of price fluctuations are greater.

The endeavor of the Cuban Government to control the sugar market and to reach an agreement on this matter with all other sugar-producing countries of the world has been widely discussed by the technical press, and it is not my purpose to enter into details here about the present condition of the sugar industry. I would like simply to point out that the measures of the Cuban Government on sugar production are a part only of a larger program of economic policy, which in our opinion deserves to be examined thoroughly and without prejudice. . . .

I think it is interesting to summarize the most important economic problems which the committee had to take under examination, as they were specified in the presidential report mentioned above: (a) To improve the standard of living of the Cuban workers, allowing them the same advantages as those granted by the labor legislation enacted in the most important civilized countries; (b) to restrict immigration of undesirable persons whose labor might compete with

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<sup>1</sup> The following pages comprise two chapters of a more comprehensive study, "Cuba's Recent Economic Policy," prepared by Dr. Rocca.



that of the Cuban workers and on the other hand to attract immigrants willing to settle permanently in the country; (c) to foster the development of agriculture, especially through the construction of country roads, the establishment of rural banks, and the division of big uncultivated estates; (d) to create a new high school of agriculture in order to extend researches into agricultural chemistry, mechanics, and the prevention of cattle diseases; (e) to improve means of communication in the interior of the island, not only through the construction of the Central Highway, but also through cross-roads facilitating the transportation of farm products to the markets; (f) to develop the merchant marine and to improve the principal ports, especially those of Habana and Santiago; (g) to modify the present system of taxation, trying to replace indirect taxes by direct ones, to be levied in proportion to the income of each citizen; (h) to institute a national banking system, taking especially into account the system adopted by the United States; (i) to improve the governmental statistical service; (j) to conclude new commercial treaties; (k) to study the financing of public works; (l) to make an investigation of the best way to utilize the lands which are the property of the State and have them distributed among poor Cuban farmers; and (m) to submit to the Government a plan of tariff revision.

This decree was the outcome of the same tendency which induced the Cuban Government to make a partial revision of the custom tariff in October, 1927. The revision was inspired by a desire to introduce more diversified production into Cuban agriculture and to give protection to new local industries. It is always a difficult task to persuade farmers to introduce new methods of cultivation, because in all countries they are inclined to follow tradition. Moreover, in Cuba, so much capital was invested by large and small farmers in sugar plantations, in the hope of obtaining profits as great as those made during the war, that in order to secure appreciable results from the new policy of the Government it was necessary to intensify in every way this educational propaganda among the population.

The report of April 1, 1932, on *Economic conditions in Cuba*, made by the English Consul General at Habana,<sup>2</sup> contains an appreciation of the efforts made by the Cuban Government in this matter. The report declares:

The strenuous efforts made by the Government during the past few years, through the imposition of high tariffs and other means, to stimulate manufacturing industries and to encourage a greater diversification of agriculture, have not been entirely unsuccessful, but they have not yet appreciably lessened the country's dependence on sugar cultivation and, to a minor degree, on the production of tobacco. Around these two commodities the economic life of Cuba continues to revolve, and although some progress is to be noted in the development of other crops, sugar is destined to remain, for many years to come, the

<sup>2</sup> "Bulletin of the Department of Oversea Trade," London, April, 1932.

staple to which over 60 per cent of the island's population must look for livelihood. The educational work undertaken by the Cuban Department of Agriculture includes the establishment of experiment stations, the holding of fairs and exhibitions, awarding of prizes, distribution of market information, etc.

#### AGRICULTURAL PROBLEMS

As was mentioned in the decree of the Secretary of Treasury, dated July 18, 1928, referring to the creation of a special subcommittee on agriculture of the Economic Committee above mentioned, the problem of the diversification of agricultural production had to be considered in relation not only to the program of construction of public roads



SUGARCANE GROWING, CUBA

Sugarcane 11 months after planting. This photograph was taken in the State of Matanzas, where soil and climate are particularly favorable.

already approved by the Government but also to the questions of irrigation of land, of colonization of large estates now almost abandoned, and of immigration. Agricultural problems were certainly the most important of all the questions before the examination of the Economic Committee.

According to a law enacted in 1923, all owners or tenants of agricultural estates are obliged to reserve 15 per cent of the total area of the farm for fruit trees or for timber, but the enforcement of the law seems to be very difficult notwithstanding the efforts of the Department of Agriculture. This department has a budget of less than \$1,000,000, and besides all the bureaus having to do with agriculture, it

comprises the bureau of mines, and all the offices dealing with industrial production and labor questions. The endeavors of the Department of Agriculture to extend the cultivation of certain products better suited to the climate of the island are backed by the provincial governments. In the Provinces of Habana and Santa Clara, the cultivation of lima beans and of potatoes has been widely extended in recent years, with a view not only to supplying the local market but also to exporting these vegetables to the United States. However, the Cuban vegetable exporters have to overcome the difficulties arising from the want of adequate transportation and from the rigorous laws in force in the United States for the prevention of vegetable diseases. Recently a new line has been established improving and extending the ferryboat service between New York, New Orleans, and Habana. All the ferryboats (called "Sea-trains" because the cars pass from American railways to the boat and from the boat to Cuban railways without being opened—each boat has a capacity of 100 cars<sup>3</sup>) are equipped with refrigerator cars for the transportation of fruits and vegetables, and uniform rules will be established in order to avoid the transfer of perishable merchandise from one train to another.

On the other hand, the Cuban Department of Agriculture is doing intensive work in educating the farmers to improve the quality of the products, as well as of the packing. Two experts have recently been sent to Canada in order to study the best methods of cultivating potatoes. It is worth while to mention the fact that in this matter also direct cooperation has been established between the two Departments of Agriculture, that of the United States and that of Cuba, with a view to preparing uniform rules on vegetable quarantine, etc. A special survey has been made in Cuba by experts of the United States Department of Agriculture on certain diseases of fruit and vegetables. In the opinion of Dr. C. L. Marlatt, Chief of the Plant Quarantine and Control Administration of the United States Department of Agriculture, "The introduction and establishment of important Malayan parasitic and predacious enemies of the citrus blackfly in the American Tropics is one of the outstanding successes in the field of plant quarantine. The effort was a cooperative one, supported by Cuba and the United States."<sup>4</sup>

There is no doubt that more vegetables and fruits could be produced in Cuba and exported to the United States in competition with similar products of Florida, taking advantage of the fact that, owing to the warmer tropical weather, most of them could arrive in the Atlantic northern ports some weeks in advance of Florida-grown crops. In winter, Florida and Cuba are already the chief sources of supply of

<sup>3</sup> See illustration, BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, October, 1932, p. 745.

<sup>4</sup> U. S. Department of Agriculture, Technical Bulletin No. 320, August, 1932.



tomatoes and other vegetables and fruits for the New York market, replacing almost completely western sources. For instance, exports of early grapefruit from the Isle of Pines amounted in 1928 to only 125,000 boxes, and according to a recent American consular report, they come on the United States market from four to six weeks earlier than Florida grapefruit, thus obtaining the advantage of early prices. For lack of transportation a great quantity of citrus fruits (oranges, lemons, etc.) is now abandoned in the fields, but still, as it appears



Courtesy of "The Cuba Review"

#### TOBACCO FIELD, PINAR DEL RÍO

The tobacco grown in this Province is considered the choicest in the Republic.

from the following figures, the production of these vegetables and fruits has been slowly increasing in recent years. We have no recent figures referring to production, and we give the figures of exports just to illustrate the tendency:

#### *Cuban exports of vegetables and fruits*

[Value in thousands of dollars]

Article	1928	1929	1930
Pineapples.....	956	1,183	1,660
Bananas.....	1,187	1,515	1,542
Grapefruit.....	263	192	358
Tomatoes.....	618	741	476



Cuba is also the principal supplier of pineapples to the United States: Of the 7,000,000 pounds of fresh pineapples imported in 1930, more than 5,000,000 were from Cuba.

According to a statement of the *Comisión Nacional de Estadística* there has been during the last few years a large increase in the production of coffee and cacao; in 1927 the production of coffee on the island was sufficient to meet 67 per cent of local consumption. Cuba has not only become self-supporting, but has reached the point where it now has an exportable surplus. Coffee exports increased from only 151 kilos valued at \$66 in the first half of 1931 to 18,096 kilos valued at \$2,290 during the same period of 1932.<sup>5</sup> Enthusiasm is also appearing in the Provinces of Matanzas and Habana for the cultivation of rice, owing to the fact that soil conditions there seem to be analogous to those in Texas and Louisiana. In 1931, Cuba's production of rice amounted to 3,500 tons, compared with 350 tons in 1928 and 1,800 tons in 1929.

Encouragement on the part of the Government is evidently not sufficient to persuade the farmers to develop certain products instead of sugar or tobacco; as in any other country, the selection of the products to cultivate is a question of prices, and if the imported article can be sold in Cuba more cheaply than the Cuban product, the stimulation to cultivate it will never be successful. However, it is generally recognized that the increased production of corn, rice, and coffee has been profitable to the country and to the individual farmers.

New local industries in connection with food products total more than 50 and are reported to represent an investment of over \$5,000,000. These new plants are especially occupied with the preparation of milk, cheese, and butter, with bakeries, and with the meat-packing industry. A serious effort is now being made to replace by domestic products the jerked beef imported from Uruguay and Argentina. The value of the total meat consumption in Cuba was estimated in 1927 at \$14,000,000, of which there was about \$11,000,000 worth of beef, about \$2,000,000 worth of pork, and \$121,000 worth of mutton. In 1926 Cuba imported 14,534 cows for reproduction at a value of \$593,000, almost exclusively from Venezuela, and 26,000 hogs at a value of \$549,960, all from the United States.

The livestock industry is usually ranked third in importance amongst Cuban industries; as yet, however, the stage of its development is not high nor is rapid improvement generally anticipated. It is estimated that there are in the island about 4,855,000 head of cattle of all kinds, about 619,000 horses, 74,000 mules and 150,000 swine. In the above-mentioned report of the English Consul at

<sup>5</sup> Report of the United States Commercial Attaché, United States Commerce Reports No. 39, September, 1932.

Habana, we read: "Some assistance to the cattle industry has been given by the prohibitive duties imposed on imports of jerked beef. It is a question whether this drastic measure has brought some advantage to the manufacture of local products, but it has served to some extent to stimulate the consumption of fresh meat in Cuba . . . A shipment of frozen meat to Liverpool is reported to have given satisfaction and may make the beginning of a moderate trade . . . Imports of eggs declined practically to the vanishing point, less than 100,000 dozen being brought in from abroad in 1931, as against 11,500,000 dozen five years earlier."

The duty on seed potatoes was recently removed by presidential decree in order to stimulate potato growing, and in general, this gov-



CUBAN HOGS

Hog raising is becoming increasingly important in Cuba as measures are taken to lessen economic dependence upon sugar.

ernmental program of developing a diversified agriculture presents an evident interest for the United States. Cuba is one of the chief foreign markets of the United States for vegetables, in 1927 taking 75 per cent of the dry beans, 38 per cent of the dry peas, 57 per cent of the potatoes, and 37 per cent of the onions shipped from the larger country.<sup>6</sup> Cuba is also the most reliable of all United States flour markets, in that its takings vary less from month to month and from year to year than those of any other country, and practically the entire supply (in 1930, more than 1,000,000 barrels at a value of \$6,000,000) comes from the United States.

On the other hand, Cuba furnishes about 40 per cent of the sugar supplies of the United States (in 1930, about 2,500,000 short tons of

<sup>6</sup> In 1931 Cuba took 21.7 per cent of the dried beans exported from the United States, 19.6 per cent of the dried peas, 23.4 per cent of the potatoes, and 18.5 per cent of the onions.—EDITOR.

raw sugar) and between 60 and 70 per cent of cigar tobacco used in this country.<sup>7</sup> As is noted in the latest issue of the *Commerce Year-book*, 1932<sup>8</sup> "most of the wrapper imports come from the Netherland East Indies via the Netherlands. Imports of tobacco from Cuba declined in 1931, amounting to only about 19,000,000 pounds compared with 22,000,000 pounds in 1930," due probably to the unfavorable exchange rates in some of Cuba's leading markets. . . .

#### THE CUBAN SUGAR INSTITUTE

The establishment of a Cuban Institute for the stabilization of sugar is one of the outstanding features of the economic policy of

<sup>7</sup> The following sections of tables are taken from Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1932. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce. They are added here for reference.—EDITOR.

#### *Sugar production: Continental United States and certain outlying areas, and world total*

[In thousands of tons of 2,000 pounds. Data represents predominantly raw sugar except as noted]

Yearly average or year beginning July 1—	Continental United States and outlying areas	Continental United States			Puerto Rico	Hawaii	Philippine Islands	World total	Per cent of world total in—	
		Total (in terms of raw)	Beet (chiefly refined)	Cane (chiefly raw)					Continental United States	United States and outlying areas
1925.....	3,119	1,121	913	<sup>a</sup> 139	603	787	607	27,959	4.0	11.1
1926.....	3,218	1,011	897	<sup>a</sup> 47	629	811	767	26,624	3.8	12.1
1927.....	3,699	1,246	1,093	<sup>a</sup> 71	749	897	808	28,515	4.4	13.0
1928.....	3,693	1,273	1,061	<sup>a</sup> 132	587	899	934	30,702	4.1	12.0
1929.....	4,056	1,294	1,018	<sup>a</sup> 200	866	912	984	30,662	4.2	13.2
1930.....	4,194	1,482	1,208	<sup>a</sup> 184	783	989	<sup>b</sup> 940	31,935	4.6	13.1
1931 (preliminary).....	4,337	1,399	1,156	<sup>a</sup> 157	988	<sup>b</sup> 1,000	<sup>b</sup> 950	28,961	4.8	15.0

<sup>a</sup> Louisiana only, beginning 1924.

<sup>b</sup> Unofficial estimate; data for Philippine Islands representing estimated commercial crop.

#### *Sugar, raw: Percentages relating to sugar consumption in continental United States*

Year beginning July 1—	Per cent of world production retained for consumption	Per cent of consumption from— <sup>a</sup>			Year beginning July 1—	Per cent of world production retained for consumption	Per cent of consumption from— <sup>a</sup>		
		Domestic	Non-contiguous territory	All foreign countries			Domestic	Non-contiguous territory	All foreign countries
1921.....	27.2	25.5	24.0	50.5	1926.....	24.5	15.5	25.9	58.6
1922.....	28.3	17.3	20.9	61.8	1927.....	23.0	19.0	31.2	49.8
1923.....	24.8	19.7	22.6	57.7	1928.....	23.4	17.7	27.5	54.8
1924.....	24.5	19.3	25.2	55.6	1929.....	20.8	20.3	37.4	42.3
1925.....	23.8	16.9	29.8	53.3	1930.....	20.0	23.2	40.7	36.1

<sup>a</sup> Exports assumed to be wholly from sugar imported from foreign countries.

<sup>8</sup> U. S. Department of Commerce, Vol. I, Washington, 1932.



CUBAN SUGAR CENTRAL

The sugar mill may be seen in the center and in the foreground an athletic field for the employees.

the Government, and I will briefly summarize its purposes and activities. As is pointed out in the *World Economic Survey*, of the League of Nations,<sup>9</sup> "the depression in agriculture, which is a large part of the present crisis, is almost worldwide. Most of the commodities of agricultural origin have fallen heavily in price." "The world stocks of sugar increased from thirty-seven millions of quintals in December 1925 to eighty-seven millions in 1931, and such very heavy stocks obviously represent a serious maladjustment of demand and supply. The sugar stocks represent about one-third of the average yearly supply. . . ." By concerted international action, efforts were made to limit production and to sustain the price of sugar.

The representatives of the principal sugar-exporting countries of the world (Cuba, Java, Germany, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, Hungary, and Belgium) concluded at Brussels, Belgium, on May 9, 1931, an agreement (known as the Chadbourne plan) in order to promote and to protect the sugar industry especially through a limitation of the exports for the period of the agreement, namely, until September 1, 1935.

To carry into effect the purpose of the agreement, a decree establishing the "Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute" (Instituto Cubano

<sup>9</sup> Geneva, 1932, pp. 92-96.



de Estabilización del Azúcar) was issued by President Machado, on May 6, 1931. The Institute is legally empowered to represent all present producers of sugar in Cuba, or those who shall establish themselves in Cuba during the five years 1931-1935, inclusive, at the signing of the international convention, to take part in further conferences, and to initiate and carry on negotiations with sugar producers of other countries concerning the production and exportation of sugar.

The Institute consists of 7 members appointed by the President, of whom 5 are selected from candidates nominated by the Association of Sugar Mill Owners, and 2 by the Association of Cane Planters. This decree of May 6, 1931, was issued in accordance with authority conferred on the President by the law of October 4, 1927 (creating a National Commission for the Defense of the Sugar Industry), and by the sugar stabilization law of November 15, 1930.

The outstanding features of the sugar stabilization law were: Segregation of 1,500,000 long tons of sugar from existing stocks to be marketed in a prescribed manner during the next five years; authorization of a \$42,000,000 bond issue to pay the sugar producers for the segregated sugar at the rate of \$4 per bag; authorization for the President (contained in Article XXII of the law) to control future sugar production by determining the ideal total crop of Cuba; creation of a National Sugar Export Corporation as custodian of the bond issue, in control of all sugar export marketing for the next five years.

On January 29, 1931, the Cuban crop was restricted by presidential decree to 3,122,000 long tons.

On September 11, 1931, the 1932 export quota basis was fixed by presidential decree.

On May 28, 1932, by presidential decree, the crop was limited to 2,700,000 tons for the year 1932.

On June 11, 1932, a decree provided the basis for the determination of Cuba's quota of sugar exports to the United States.

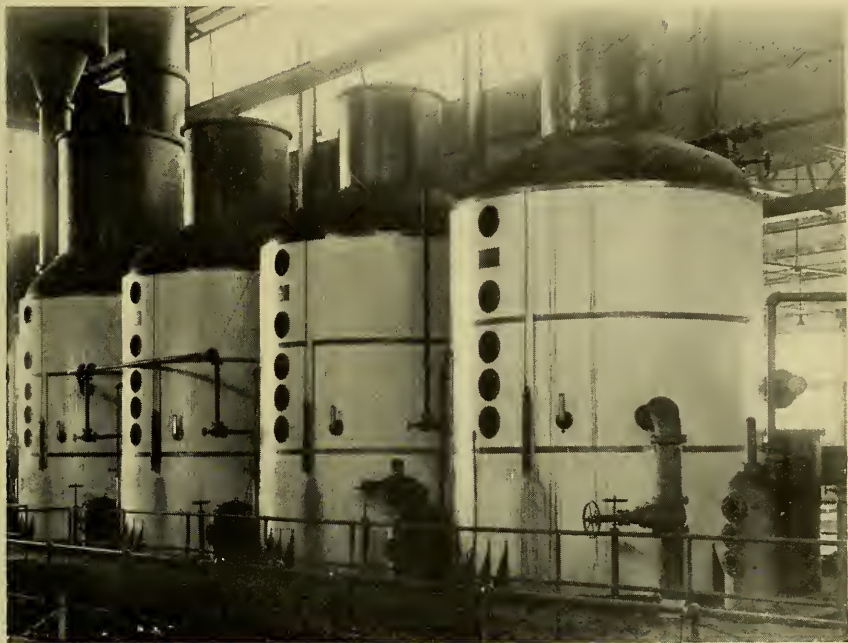
A decree of September 26, 1932, extended the release date on the 700,000 tons of segregated sugar to June 30, 1933, and provided for this release thereafter in equal monthly amounts from July to December.

By a decree dated November 2, 1932, the crop of sugar for 1933 was limited to 2,000,000 tons, and the quota of export to the United States to 1,114,991 tons. The production of Cuban sugar in the year 1931-32 was estimated as 16 per cent less than in 1930-31 and 44 per cent less than in 1929-30. By the international agreement, Cuba agreed that exports of sugar to countries other than the United States

should not exceed the following quotas in each of the five years 1931-1935:

	Long tons		Long ton
1931-----	655, 000	1934-----	855, 000
1932-----	805, 000	1935-----	855, 000
1933-----	855, 000		

On July 2, 1932, a decree provided for the retention of 700,000 tons of sugar out of that portion of the crop destined for exportation to the United States amounting to 2,800,000 tons, and prohibited its exportation until January 1, 1933. The Cuban Export Corporation



EVAPORATORS

The cane juice, after having been boiled and clarified, is concentrated in these great tanks before being subjected to the crystallization processes.

was empowered to determine the quotas to be furnished by each sugar holder. To make up the quantity of 700,000 tons, all holders of sugar exportable to the United States were required to contribute 50 per cent of their holdings of such sugar. Voluntary contributions in excess of this proportion may be accepted.<sup>10</sup>

By another decree, also of July 2, 1932, a quantity of 115,000 tons sugar, in addition to the 700,000 tons contemplated by the foregoing decree, were transferred from the quota for export to the United States to that for export to other countries. These 115,000 tons represent

<sup>10</sup> "Facts About Sugar", New York, August, 1932.

the balance of Germany's quota for the second year of the international agreement, which Germany was unable to export and which was added to the quota of Cuba.<sup>11</sup>

All the decrees referring to the limitation of the production of sugar and to the quotas of exports were issued by the President on the advice of the Cuban Sugar Institute and the National Export Corporation, which are both official institutions representative of the Cuban sugar industry; the Institute of Stabilization deals with international questions, and the National Export Corporation with national questions only. Of the original amount of a \$42,000,000 bond issue to pay the sugar producers, \$25,000,000 will remain in circulation at the beginning of 1933.

By the agreement at Ostend, Belgium, in June, 1932, the quota for 1933 was increased to 1,000,000 tons. The agreement did not control the exports of Cuba to the United States; but it was understood that the production of Cuba would be limited to the total quantity necessary for its home consumption, its exports to countries other than the United States, and its exports to the United States to the extent that said home consumption and exports were not provided for by the amount to be taken annually from the segregated stocks. The quantity segregated for the first year of the agreement was fixed at 1,040,000 tons, to be reduced at the rate of at least 260,000 tons per annum.

[According to *Facts About Sugar*, January 1, 1933, the agreements reached at the International Sugar Council which, after adjourning from Paris, met at The Hague from November 29 to December 2, 1932, "provide for the reduction of Germany's export quota for 1932-33 to 200,000 tons, instead of the 300,000 tons allowed in the original agreement. In return, Cuba and the other European countries relinquish their right to share in the German export deficit existing on September 1, 1932, and any prospective deficit on September 1, 1933, except as regards the 115,000 tons of the 1931-32 German deficit already assigned to Cuba for export during the calendar year 1932.

"Cuba's export quota for countries outside the United States is adjusted at 985,000 tons from 1932, plus the quantities of 65,000 and 115,000 tons assigned from the German deficits. Cuba's export quota for the same countries in 1933 will be 1,000,000 tons instead of the 855,000 tons allowed by the original agreement. The increase of 145,000 tons will be deducted from the guarantee given by the European countries and Peru to Cuba regarding shipments from Java during 1932-33 in excess of 1,500,000 tons."—EDITOR.]

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<sup>11</sup> From the message of the President, Nov. 8, 1932, and from "Facts About Sugar", New York, 1932.

## ARGENTINA PLANS GOOD ROADS<sup>1</sup>

UNTIL recent years highways occupied a secondary position in the development of the general transportation program of Argentina. With hundreds of miles of level pampas as a foundation, it has been pointed out, railway construction proceeded rapidly and the highways came to occupy a secondary position, principally as feeders to the railway lines, but now men of vision in Argentina, aware of the country's need of highways as an aid to national progress, have secured the passage of a national highway law, supported by a definite construction program and a continuous highway fund. The new law coordinates Federal and Provincial road building by extending Federal aid to all the provinces. Drafted along lines very similar to the United States Federal highway law, the Argentine law (No. 11,658) was passed by Congress September 30, 1932, and signed by President Agustín P. Justo on October 5, that date coinciding with "Highway Day," a national annual celebration instituted in 1928. Señor J. Allende Posse, Director of the National Highway Bureau created by this law, announces that Argentina will be able to spend on highways approximately 1,000,000,000 paper pesos (about \$425,000,000 at par) during the next 15 years. One-half of this amount is to be used for the Federal trunk highway system, which alone will total 30,000 miles.

The law is the culmination of a decade of effort by local and international organizations interested in highways. Argentine highway experts have journeyed to the United States to study the organization of the Federal Bureau of Public Roads and the State highway departments, attend highway conferences, examine American highway equipment and materials and engineering methods. Among those experts have been C. G. Gerstrom, Director de Carreteras del Automóvil Club Argentino, and Juan Agustín Valle, Director General de la División de la Vialidad, Asociación Argentina de Importadores de Automóviles y Anexos. All possible assistance has been given to Argentina in furnishing information on highway development, financing, legislation, and road construction data from highway agencies in the United States, and from the United States Department of Commerce, through its Buenos Aires office.

One of the immediate benefits of the law will be the increase in funds for highway purposes, the taxes provided by the law becoming effective January 1, 1933. Road expenditures (for plans, construc-

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<sup>1</sup> Compiled by Lyle A. Brookover, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce.





Courtesy of the United States Bureau of Public Roads



#### ARGENTINE ROADS

Upper: A paved highway in the vicinity of the capital. Of the total road mileage, about 2,600 miles are hard surfaced. Lower: Bridge over the Caldera River, Province of Salta. Legislation has been enacted by this Province to provide the necessary funds for the provincial highway program.

tion, and maintenance) in 1933 are expected to amount to about 60,000,000 paper pesos, approximately \$15,000,000 United States currency, at present exchange rate of \$0.26 (or \$25,500,000 at par of \$0.425), which is three times as much as was spent by the National Government for highways in 1931, and about twice the expenditure in 1932.

As far as domestic road expenditures are concerned, the peso is still at almost par, because the bulk of the expenditures go for labor and for locally produced cement, the prices of which have not appreciably increased in pesos.

Heretofore Argentine roads have been built partly from the proceeds of the Mitre law, which provides a tax of 3 per cent on net railway earnings, for building roads to the stations, but mostly from amounts set aside in each annual budget, which varied from year to year.

Sources of the 19,294,225 paper pesos (approximately \$8,200,000) spent in the calendar year 1931 were: Budget, 12,614,525 pesos; Mitre law, 3,337,530 pesos; and gasoline surcharge, 3,342,170 pesos. Official figures of expenditures and sources for 1932 are not yet available. Additional funds were obtained in 1931 from the gasoline surcharge collections which amounted to 17,009,243 paper pesos from February 4, when the agreement went into effect, until December 31 that year. This balance was held pending completion in 1932 of roads actually authorized in 1931.

The estimate of 60,000,000 paper pesos available for 1933, made by Dr. C. A. Pueyrredón of the Chamber of Deputies, includes an appropriation of 10,000,000 paper pesos from the general budget; a gasoline tax of 5 centavos per liter (or nearly 5 cents, United States currency, per gallon) which is expected to yield 45,000,000 pesos; and a tax on lubricating oils amounting to 15 per cent of the wholesale price, expected to yield 5,000,000 pesos. These gas and oil taxes are set by the new law to run for 15 years. These are not all of the possible sources of revenue under the highway law. Additional sources in 1933 and following years will be the Mitre law tax on railway earnings, also to be available until 1947; a tax on increased valuation of the land through which the roads are built; the proceeds of negotiation of highway bonds, of which up to 200,000,000 paper pesos worth may be issued when and as considered advisable; highway fines and donations.

It remains to be seen whether or not the Government will issue during 1933 any of the road bonds authorized by the law, but Doctor Pueyrredón's estimate is made without counting on this revenue. Distribution of the 60,000,000 pesos is planned on the percentage basis provided by the law, to go to the 25 provinces and territories,

partly according to population and partly in proportion to gasoline consumption.

Statistical data on the proposed expenditures of the provincial governments in 1933 are not obtainable, but it is to be presumed that impetus will be given to the entire highway movement by the increased Federal outlay, particularly since Federal aid must be matched by provincial funds on a 50-50 basis.

The United States supplies Argentina with the greater portion of the road-building machinery used, and the ratio of reduction in sales of this class of machinery in the past two years has been far less than on other types of machinery. Most of the equipment now in use is



Courtesy of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce

#### A BUENOS AIRES STREET

The width of this thoroughfare helps to solve one of the present-day traffic problems by permitting two rows of cars to be parked in the center.

comparatively new. It is reasonable to assume, however, that the increase of more than \$7,000,000 in 1933 highway expenditures undoubtedly will result in the purchase of additional equipment.

In materials, local deposits of sand, gravel, and rock, suitable for road-building purposes, are distant from the more densely populated areas and must be brought to points of use at a high cost of transportation. Large amounts are imported, mostly from Uruguay. Asphalt and cement are produced locally, but not enough to supply the demand, and both are imported in quantity from the United States. In 1931, these imports were 2,142 tons of asphalt, valued at \$44,974, and 36,886 barrels of cement, valued at \$180,574.



The bulk of all construction work is let by bids to private contractors. American companies have participated in street construction in various cities. Foreign companies bidding for construction do so through subsidiary companies organized under Argentine laws.

With the area of 1,153,417 square miles and an estimated population of 12,000,000 persons, Argentina had, on January 1, 1932, a motor-vehicle registration of 331,023. There were 26,467 miles of railways, excluding industrial lines.

Although there are at present no accurate official data, the total mileage of roads in Argentina is estimated at 137,177. In 1931, there were about 2,597 miles of hard-surfaced roads and 44,580 miles of unsurfaced but graded and drained roads. There were also approximately 90,000 miles of natural earth roads, passable only in dry weather.

These figures show that the mileage of hard-surfaced roads is relatively small for a country of Argentina's size and economic importance. Although the country has more automobiles than all the other South American countries combined, they are, except when the weather is fine and the dirt roads in condition, confined to town areas.

The National Highway Bureau (Dirección General de Vialidad), created by the new highway law with headquarters in Buenos Aires, the capital, will set about with all possible speed consistent with efficiency to remedy this unfavorable condition. A great potential market for automotive vehicles will be opened up by extension of improved roads to all parts of the country.

The law states that the National Highway Bureau shall function with full power and authority accorded by the law. The President of the nation can intervene when the exigencies of good service make such action indispensable, but he must immediately advise Congress.

The bureau will be administered by seven commissioners appointed by the President for 3-year terms, with fixed salaries. They must be Argentine citizens, and they may be reappointed. Señor Posse, an engineer, formerly Minister of Public Works in the Province of Cordoba, was named director of the bureau. Two of the six commissioners who will assist him are Alfredo Natale, who represents automotive interests, and Enrique Chanourdie, who stands for the railways. Of the remaining commissioners to be appointed, one will represent agriculture, and three definite regions of the country.

Not over 8 per cent of the bureau's budget may be spent for remuneration of the commission and salaries of the technical and administrative personnel.

A chief engineer, named by the President, will have a voice but not a vote in the board, as a technical advisor. The commission is



to meet at least once a week, or whenever extraordinary sessions may be called by its director. Before the 30th of March each year, a report will be made to the President on the work of the preceding year. The chief engineer will have a technical advisory board consisting of heads of divisions or of the principal offices of the bureau. He will make economic and technical studies and prepare statistics to serve as bases for planning construction of the national highway system, over a 5-year period.

A trunk system of national highways throughout the Republic is created, and there is established a system of Federal aid to the provinces for the construction of highways in accordance with provisions of the law.



Courtesy of Warren Bros. Co.

#### STREET PAVING IN AVELLANEDA, ARGENTINA

This town has been practically transformed by extensive road construction work in the past year. The greater part of the road-building machinery was acquired from the United States.

Roads are classified in four categories: National, provincial, vicinal, and roads of special character. National highways are defined as those which unite provinces and territories, those which give access to neighboring countries, those which radiate from ports and railroad stations, those which connect important cities and centers of production, and those which are constructed for strategic purposes.

These national roads will coordinate as much as possible highway and railway, fluvial, maritime, and aerial transportation.

In general, the contracts for all roads constructed under authority of the Highway Commission will be let by public bid, providing that they exceed in cost the sum of 20,000 paper pesos. Those under this sum may be let without public bids, for reasons of emergency or

economy. In specifications with calls for bids, the bureau will establish minimum wages for labor.

The provincial roads to be built in accordance with the law will be determined and set forth on a plan for highways presented to the commission by provincial authorities. Each province desiring to secure Federal aid must pass a law which will serve as an agreement or contract with the Federal Government, and which will set up a highway organization with regular sources of income.

The Chamber of Deputies of Salta Province has approved such a law, setting aside 5,000,000 pesos for highway work; one source of income will be the license fees now collected by the cities. If other



Courtesy of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce

#### AN AUTOMOBILE ASSEMBLY PLANT, BUENOS AIRES

A more extensive highway system should increase the sale of automobiles in Argentina. This fine showroom and assembly plant, with a test track on the roof, is one of the several assembly plants maintained by Argentine distributors and American automobile manufacturers.

provinces follow this plan, it will both hasten highway construction and simplify the national registration of motor cars, for the municipalities at present collecting these fees do not use them for highway funds nor are they required to report them to higher authorities.

The governor of Mendoza Province is asking its legislature for passage, in a called meeting, of a highway law to secure Federal aid.

Sixty per cent of the national fund for the construction of highways, which is to come from previously mentioned sources, will be distributed to the national highway system, and 40 per cent to the provincial highways, according to specific terms and conditions. The national

highways will have a constant width of as much as 164 feet where topographical and economic conditions permit, and they will follow, as far as possible, the shortest distance between two given points. They will be the exclusive property of the Nation, and the National Highway Bureau will have full power to expropriate land.

The provinces are bound to maintain provincial highways built with Federal aid in a perfect state of preservation. The provinces must expend in construction an amount equal to the Federal contribution each year, which will not exceed 50 per cent of the total amount invested.

Marking and numbering of the national highways will be effected by the National Highway Bureau, which will promote the adoption of a uniform system for all highways.

The bureau will prepare and submit to the Executive Power the general traffic regulations for national highways and will promote their adoption throughout the Republic on secondary roads as well.

All machinery and equipment for the construction of highways, bridges, and similar necessary works, which may be acquired abroad by the National Highway Bureau, the provincial or municipal governments, will be admitted free of customs duties.

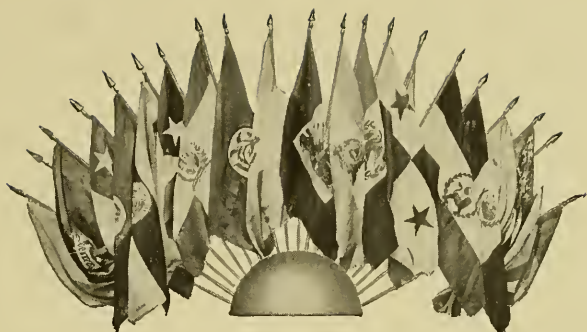
A decree has been issued by the Minister of Public Works setting forth details of the operation of the highway law and the scope and powers of the Highway Commission. This decree provides for collection and control of the taxes on gasoline and oil by the Administration of Internal Revenue, which will report monthly to the Highway Commission. It provides also for completion by July 1 of this year of all existing construction and contracts made prior to passage of the highway law.

With its work thus decreed and outlined, the commission will be able to organize and initiate the construction of the first of a series of road networks which are expected ultimately to give Argentina a vast system of modern highways comparing favorably with those of other progressive nations of the world.

Argentine highway leaders feel that the presence of the highway law on the statute books will provide a sound basis for future planning and building of roads, and thus will be of inestimable value.







## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*New director of Brazilian national library.*—According to information received by the Pan American Union, Dr. Mario Behring, after repeated requests that his resignation as Director General of the National Library of Brazil be accepted, has been released from that position by the Minister of Education and Public Health. Pending the acceptance of Doctor Behring's resignation, Dr. Aurelio Lopes de Souza, director of the division of prints of the library, served as acting Director General. He was succeeded by Dr. Rodolpho Garcia, recently appointed by the Provisional President of the Republic. Doctor Behring, who had been connected with the library since 1902, was appointed Director General in January, 1924. Doctor Garcia, the new Director General, is well known in Brazilian literary circles as a linguist, grammarian, historian, and editor. His works on the Tupi languages and his valuable notes on new editions of sixteenth and seventeenth century histories of Brazil are considered valuable contributions to the literature of Brazil.

*Bibliography of Latin American history.*—The *Bibliographic Series* of the Pan American Union has been increased by the addition of No. 9, entitled *The histories of Hispanic America: A bibliographical essay*, by A. Curtis Wilgus, Ph. D., 115 pages. In this study Professor Wilgus has given the title, author, and date of histories of Latin America with notes on each book; the works of each century are grouped together. The compilation should be especially useful to teachers and students of Latin American history.

*Complete works of Andrés Bello.*—The library has been very fortunate in receiving as a gift a specially bound set of *Obras completas de Don Andrés Bello*, volumes 1 to 15. This edition was published in Santiago de Chile, 1881–1893, and has long been out of print. The set was presented by a grandson of the author, Señor Emilio Bello Codesido, a member of the Tribunal for arbitrating the boundary dispute between Guatemala and Honduras, who has lately accepted the portfolio of National Defense of the Government of Chile. A



new edition of the *Obras completas*, of which volumes 1 to 6 have already appeared, is now being published in Santiago under the auspices of the University of Chile.

*Argentine literary awards.*—The awards for the Argentine national literary contest for 1929 have just been announced. The first prize, 30,000 pesos, was awarded to Ezequiel Martínez Estrada for two books, *Titeres de pies ligeros* and *Humoresca*; the second, 20,000 pesos, to the novelist Manuel Gálvez for *Humaitá* and *Jornadas de agonía*; and the third, 10,000 pesos, to Enrique de Gandía for the historical treatise *La ilusión errante*.

*Bibliographic Institute in Argentina.*—The Instituto Universitario de Bibliografía which held its first meeting in June, 1932, under the auspices of the National University of Córdoba, Argentina, plans to establish a union catalog of scientific works to be known as the *Index Scientiæ*. The organization, which has been advocated for years by Dr. Raúl Cisneros, is a scientific body cooperating with the International Bibliographical Institute in Brussels and other organizations. It also plans to standardize library methods within the university.

*New bulletin of bibliography.*—A noteworthy addition to the periodicals received in the Library of the Pan American Union is the *Boletín de la oficina bibliográfica de la Universidad Nacional de Córdoba*, listed in detail elsewhere in these notes. The magazine contains an unusual feature in that in the bibliography full catalog entries are given, printed on one side of the page only so that they may be cut out and pasted on cards for catalog use.

*Recent acquisitions.*—Among the 174 books received in the library during the past month the following are especially noted:

*Don Pablos en América* (tres relatos) [por] Enrique Bernardo Núñez. Caracas, Editorial "Elite," lit. y tip. Bargas, 1932. 75 p. 18 cm.

*Desierto de piedra*, por Hugo Wast, edited with notes and vocabulary by E. R. Sims . . . Illustrated by L. Camarero. Boston, D. C. Heath and company [c1930]. 292 p. front. (port.) illus. 17 cm. (Heath's modern language series.)

*Tránsito* [por] Luis Segundo de Silvestre, novelita de costumbres americanas. Notes, exercises, and vocabulary by Frank W. Roberts . . . Illustrated by León Camarero. Boston, D. C. Heath and company [c1932]. 263 p. illus. 17 cm. (Heath's modern language series.)

*Pan y estrellas* [por] Emilio Carlos Tacconi. Obra premiada por el Ministerio de instrucción pública. Montevideo [Lena & cía., 1931]. 91 p. 20½ cm.

*La desconocida* [por] Laurentino Olascoaga. Buenos Aires [Habana, Cultural, s. a.]. 1933. 264 p. 18½ cm.

*Readings from Spanish-American authors*, edited with biographical data and notes, by Nina Lee Weisinger . . . Boston, D. C. Heath and company [c1929]. 265 p. front. (facsim.) 20½ cm. (Heath's modern language series.)

*La misión de Nicolás Herrera a Río de Janeiro (1829-1830)*; contribución al estudio de nuestra historia diplomática [por] Juan E. Pivel Devoto. Montevideo, Imprenta "El siglo ilustrado," 1932. Apartado de la "Revista del Instituto histórico y geográfico del Uruguay," tomo viii, 1931.

*Selección de poesías de Andrés Mata.* Caracas, Parra León Hermanos, 1932. 172 p. 16 cm.

*L'influence française dans l'oeuvre de Rubén Darío*, par Erwin K. Mapes . . . Paris, Librairie ancienne Honoré Champion, librairie de la Société de l'Histoire de France et de la Société des anciens textes, 1925. 183 p. 25 cm. (*Half-title*: Bibliothèque de la Revue de littérature comparée dirigée par MM. Baldensperger et Hazard, tome xxiii.)

*Enciclopedia de educación*, suplemento de arte, tomo ii-iii, enero a diciembre de 1932. [Publicada por la] Dirección de enseñanza primaria y normal. Montevideo, Imprenta nacional, [1932]. 379 p. illus. 26½ cm. Encyclopedia of art in general.

*Bolívar desde los puntos de vista sociológico, político y jurídico* [por] Angel León Carvajal. Edición especial de los Anales de la Universidad central. Quito, Imp. de la Universidad central, 1932. 261 p. 26½ cm.

*La letra de cambio ante el derecho internacional privado* [por] Norberto Piñero, con una introducción del Doctor Amancio Alcorta. Nueva edición corregida y ampliada. Buenos Aires, Librería casa editora de Jesús Menéndez, 1932. 312 p. 24 cm.

*Retratos literarios* [por] Raúl Silva Castro . . . Santiago [Imp. Universitaria] 1932. 221 p. 19½ cm. (Ediciones Ercilla contemporaneos, año I, n°. 1.)

*Primera reunión latino-americana de oftalmología* (Santiago de Chile, febrero de 1931). [Santiago de Chile] Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1932. 696 p. plates, ports., diagrs. 23 cm.

*El gaucho Florido*; la novela de la estancia cimarrona y del gaucho crudo [por] Carlos Reyes. Montevideo, "Impresora uruguaya," s. a. [n. d.]. 307 p. 19 cm.

*Bibliografía de Zacatecas* [por] Luis Chávez Orozco. Mexico, Monografías bibliográficas mexicanas, 1932. 231 p. 20½ cm. (Monografías bibliográficas mexicanas, número 26.)

*Historia general de Chile* [por] Diego Barros Arana. Tomo sexto. II edición corregida por el ejemplar que dejó revisado el autor e impresa en homenaje a su centenario. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1932. 512 p. 25 cm.

*Anthology of Mexican poets from the earliest times to the present day*, translated by Edna Worthley Underwood. Portland, Maine, The Mosher press, 1932. 331 p. 29 cm.

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*Ageus*; revista de ciencia y arte, órgano oficial de la "Asociación general de estudiantes universitarios salvadoreños." San Salvador, 1932. Año II, No. 1, octubre de 1932. 29 p., illus. 30x23 cm. Quarterly. Editors: Junta directiva de la Asociación general de estudiantes universitarios.

*La Justicia*; revista mensual, jurídico, mercantil, industrial, literaria. Mexico, 1932. Año II, n°. 28, octubre de 1932. 60 p. illus. 29x20 cm. Monthly. Editor: Lic. Franco Carreño. Address: Apartado 1458, Mexico, D. F.

*El Iniciador*; revista oficial de la Asociación patriótica del Uruguay. Montevideo, 1932. Año 1, n°. 1, octubre de 1932. 48 p. ports. 28½x20 cm. Monthly. Address: Cerrito 682, Montevideo, Uruguay.

*A. F. D.*; órgano de la "Acción feminista dominicana." Santo Domingo, 1932. Año 1, núm. 5, diciembre 1932. 8 p. 36x30 cm. Monthly. Address: Calles Hostos n°. 11 Esq. Arz. Nouel, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.

*Revista de educación.* Guatemala, 1931. Año 1, núm. 1, julio de 1931. 36 p. illus. 26x17½ cm. Monthly. Address: Ministerio de educación pública de Guatemala.

*Hispanic Review*; a quarterly journal devoted to research in the Hispanic languages and literatures. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania press, 1933. Volume I, number 1, January, 1933. 89 p. port. 24x16 cm. Quarterly. Editor: J. P. Wickersham Crawford. Address: University of Pennsylvania press, 3622 Locust St., Philadelphia, Pa.

*Estudios Jurídicos*; revista mensual, órgano del Centro jurídico del Cauca. Popayán, 1932. Año 1º, número 1º, noviembre de 1932. 42 p. 24x17 cm. Monthly. Editor: Abogado Arcesio Aragón. Address: Centro jurídica del Cauca, Popayán, Cauca, Colombia.

*Santiago de Guatemala*; revista trimensual de lectura moral, información y variedades. Guatemala, 1932. Año 1, n.º 1, 10 de noviembre de 1932. 8 p. illus., ports. 18x20 cm. Three times a month. Editor: Juan F. Arenales. Address: 10ª. Calle Oriente número 37c, Guatemala, Guatemala.

*Boletín de la Oficina bibliográfica de la Universidad nacional de Córdoba*. Córdoba, 1932. Año II, n.º 2, setiembre de 1932. 46 p diags. 26½x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: Ing. Raúl Cisneros. Address: Universidad nacional de Córdoba, Córdoba, Argentina.

*Liga de comercio de Barranquilla*; órgano de publicidad e información comercial. Barranquilla, 1932. No. 4, vol. I, agosto de 1932. 24 p. 24x17 cm. Monthly. Free distribution. Editor: H. Ruiz Quijano. Address: Apartado no. 208, Barranquilla, Colombia.

*Periodicals discontinued.*—During the past month the library of the Pan American Union has received information that the following magazines have suspended publication with the issues noted:

Revista de la Habana, Habana, December, 1930.

Nueva Escuela Salvadoreña (Órgano del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública), San Salvador, June-August, 1932.

Revue Internationale de L'Enfant, Geneva, November-December, 1931.

Coopera (Secretaría de Educación Pública), Mexico, D. F., November, 1930.

Revista de Agricultura de Puerto Rico (Departamento de Agricultura y Trabajo), San Juan, June, 1931.

"Honduras" (Órgano de la Escuela de Varones "Ramon Rosa") San Pedro Sula, Honduras, February 28, 1931.

Bulletin Officiel du Departement de L'Agriculture et du Travail, Port-au-Prince, No. 27, 1931.

Antioquia Industrial (Órgano de la Asociación de industriales de Medellín), Medellín, Colombia, May, 1932.

"Espacios" (Revista de la Asociación de profesores normalistas), Montevideo, No. 3, 1930.

Comercio Internacional (Revista mensual del comercio del Ecuador), Guayaquil, December, 1930.

Educación de Cundinamarca (Órgano de la Dirección de Educación Pública), Bogotá, June-July, 1931.

El Agrónomo Argentino (Revista técnica agraria de la Federación Agraria Argentina), Rosario, Argentina, September-December, 1930.

Heraldo Comercial (Órgano de la Confederación de Cámaras de Comercio de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos), Mexico, D. F., June 25, 1932.

Revista de la Federación Rural, Montevideo, March-April, 1931.

La Información (Revista mensual editada por el Departamento de Provisión de la Caja de Crédito Hipotecario y la Caja Nacional de Ahorros), Santiago, Chile, April, 1930.

Boletín del Consejo Nacional de Higiene, September-October, 1931.

Boletín de la Asistencia Pública Nacional, Montevideo, November-December, 1930.

# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## THIRTY YEARS OF PEACE IN COLOMBIA

November 21, 1932, was the thirtieth anniversary of the date on which Gen. Benjamín Herrera, as commander in chief of the revolutionary troops of Colombia, signed with representatives of the central Government the agreement known to history as "The Peace of the Wisconsin." This treaty, which ended the last civil strife in the annals of the nation, received its name from the fact that the settlement of difficulties between political parties, at war with one another for several years, was arranged in the Bay of Panama on board the cruiser *Wisconsin* of the United States Navy.

Ever since that time internal peace has reigned in Colombia, and the people have turned their attention away from political dissension to national progress. During these 30 years changes of administration have been by popular vote and without disturbance, and the people have been eager to develop the natural resources of their country and to bring to it the best elements of material progress and of culture.

As a Colombian writer has well said, since the Peace of the Wisconsin was signed, "Men returned to the fields, formerly uncultivated and overrun with weeds; ploughed lands gave forth their fruits, villages grew, distances lost their terror, mountains were conquered by highways which carried the laborer from the paramo to the valley, and from the air could be seen the infinite horizon of a nation busy and prosperous. Ill will was forgotten, and an atmosphere of harmony and serenity, like the magnificent hymn of peace, softened the harsh outlines of legends of olden times."—E. C. S.

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## THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF HAITI

On July 21, 1932, a new constitution went into effect in Haiti, replacing that adopted in 1918 and amended in 1928. Many of the changes are slight, being little more than a modification of phraseology to explain or clarify the text. Such are the definitions of citizenship in article 6 and of treason in article 16, and the more definitely worded statement in article 91 that each Secretary of State, as the cabinet members are called, is responsible, not only for the acts of his own department, but also for documents signed by the President of the



Republic and countersigned by him, a responsibility from which he may not be relieved by any oral or written order of the Chief Executive.

The more important changes have to do with the legislative and executive powers of the nation, and the manner of revising the Constitution. As before, the legislative power resides in the Chamber of Deputies, the Senate, and the National Assembly, made up of the two houses meeting together. That the latter is considered a separate entity is clear by article 69, which states, "The laws and other acts of the Legislative Body and of the National Assembly are made official by publication in the *Moniteur*."

The present number of Deputies (36) and system of representation are to be retained until a new study to determine the number of citizens to be represented by each Deputy shall be made. (Art. 33.) Members of the Chamber are to hold office for four years, however, instead of for two; if a vacancy occurs during or after the last session of the Legislature, there will be no special election to fill it. (Arts. 35, 36.)

The Senate is increased in membership from 15 to 20 members (art. 37); there are to be 5 Senators for the Department of the West, 4 apiece for the Departments of the North, of Artibonite, and of the South, and 3 for the Department of the Northwest. Formerly Senators were elected directly by universal suffrage at the primary assemblies (a sort of town meeting) held throughout each Department, but from now on they will be chosen by an electoral college, as provided in the same article :

. . . [Senators] are elected by an electoral college, assembled at the capital of the Department in accordance with the conditions fixed by law and composed of: (1) the Deputies from the Department who have been newly elected and proclaimed by the Census Bureau; (2) the delegates elected by the municipal councils of the Department from among the members of each council in the proportion of two delegates for communes of the first class and one delegate for communes of other classes; and (3) by the senatorial delegates elected by the primary assemblies at the times set for the general elections, in the proportion of two delegates per commune.

The electoral college of each Department shall meet the 15th of February following the general elections and be presided over by the senior judge of the civil courts of the Department. . . . The judge presiding over the Departmental electoral college is not permitted to vote in the Assembly.

. . . Both the delegates elected by communal councils and those elected by Primary Assemblies shall hold office until the meeting of the next primary assemblies.

The National Assembly will meet from now on at the opening and closing of each session of the Legislature, in addition to the other occasions specified in the Constitution. (Art. 40.) To its duties of electing the President of the Republic and administering the oath of

office to him, declaring war, and approving or rejecting international treaties and conventions, the new constitution adds a fourth, that of revising the Constitution. (Art. 42.) When an extra session is called, the Legislature is expressly forbidden to deal with any subject other than that for which it was summoned. (Art. 47.)

Changes have been made, too, in the regulations for the exercise of the legislative power. The length of each session is kept at 3 months, but it may henceforward be increased only from 1 to 2 months, instead of up to 4, as formerly; periods of adjournment by the President, it is now specifically stated, will not be counted as part of the session. (Art. 50.) Slight changes are made in the procedure in case of disagreement between the two houses on the budget and on taxation laws, and in the members' immunity from arrest or legal action. (Arts. 55, 57-62.) The power of interpreting laws belongs now only to the Legislature, such interpretation to be put in the form of a law. (Art. 72.) The monthly salary of members is increased from \$150 to \$250. (Art. 73.) Hitherto no member of the Legislature has been permitted to hold any other remunerative government position; now a certain latitude is permitted: Members may be appointed to temporary State missions abroad, in which case, however, their salaries as members of the Legislature will be taken into consideration in the payment of compensation and expense allowance. (Art. 74.)

The changes in the new constitution alter somewhat the qualifications and powers of the Chief Executive. The two-term limit imposed upon the President in the previous document has been omitted, although the provision is retained that no President may succeed himself. The 6-year term is also kept, but the qualifications for holding office have been modified: The age limit has been lowered from 40 to 35 years, and while formerly it was enough for the father of a candidate to be a Haitian citizen, now the father must be native born. (Art. 77.)

No measure may be taken by the President in the exercise of his powers unless it has first been discussed at a Cabinet meeting. (Art. 82.) The Cabinet, formerly limited to five members, now must have not less than that number. (Art. 88.) While as before members of the Cabinet have the right to take the floor in either house or in the National Assembly to defend bills and presidential objections, they may also be summoned by either house, on the vote of one-third of the members present, and questioned upon the acts of their administration, although in the interests of national welfare the secretaries may demand that such testimony be given in secret session. (Art. 90.)

In dealing with the third branch of the Government, the judicial, the new constitution starts with three new articles. The first two,

93 and 94, state that all disputes involving civil rights and, with certain exceptions established by law, political rights also, are under the exclusive jurisdiction of the courts; the third, 95, says that no court and no jurisdiction for the settlement of disputes can be established except by virtue of law. An article in the former constitution, providing that commercial disputes should be referred to the civil courts and to those of justices of the peace in conformity with the Civil Code, which was rescinded in the plebiscite of 1928, has been restored. (Art. 99.)

The organization of the judiciary is practically the same as before, with the minor change that judges of the lower courts (except justices of the peace), are now appointed for 10 years, the same term as members of the Court of Cassation.

Court decisions or judgments, as well as notarial documents to be executed by force, are to be rendered and executed in the name of the Republic, and are binding on all officers under the Attorney General and on other officers of the law. (Art. 102.) To the Court of Cassation belongs the prerogative of deciding the constitutionality of the laws, and the new constitution is more detailed and explicit than the earlier one. Article 104 states that such a decision, in connection with a lawsuit appealed to the Court of Cassation, applies solely to the case in question, and that the interpretation put upon the law by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies shall be considered authoritative so long as such an interpretation does not have a retroactive effect by taking away rights acquired by a matter previously declared *res judicata*. In rendering such an interpretation the Chambers may act of their own accord or at the instance of anyone except a party to a case that is pending. (Compare art. 72 mentioned above.)

The revision of the constitution, as previously stated in article 41 in dealing with the duties of the National Assembly, is the prerogative of that body, so that it is no longer necessary to present amendments directly to the people. The Legislature, at the suggestion of either house or of the President, may declare it necessary to revise any specified clause in the constitution. Such a declaration may be made only during the last ordinary session of a Legislature, and is published throughout the Republic. At the first session of the following, newly elected Legislature, the chambers meet as the National Assembly to pass upon the proposed revision. A quorum consists of at least two-thirds of the members of the Assembly, and a majority of two-thirds of the votes is necessary for the adoption of an amendment. (Arts. 130-132.)

In the matter of Government finances the provisions are on the whole the same, although there are a few added safeguards as regards the adoption of the budget. For example, the two houses may stop

all other legislation if the necessary information is not submitted to them within the first two weeks (instead of the first week) of the session (art. 118); a board of accounts (*Chambre des Comptes*), whose organization and duties are to be determined by law, is specifically named as the agency for the examination and settlement of the administration accounts (art. 119); and in case the national budget shall not have been adopted through the fault of the Executive branch, the President of the Republic must immediately convoke the Legislature in an extra session to vote upon it (art. 120).

Changes in the article dealing with the public forces are for the most part verbal, except for the important final clause stating that military men in active service are ineligible for any representative or executive office, and that any such person wishing to be a candidate for either kind of position must resign from the service at least one year before the date set for the election. (Art. 121.)

The chief difference between the two constitutions in treating of communes is that the one of 1932 specifically states that they are autonomous (art. 108), whereas the former contented itself with the noncommittal statement, "There shall be one Council to each commune." The primary assemblies now meet every four years instead of every two (art. 109), the change being in conformity with the longer period for which members of the Chamber of Deputies are elected. Now that there is an electoral college to elect Senators, and the revision of the constitution is entrusted entirely to the National Assembly, the duty of the primary assemblies has been limited to the election of Deputies, municipal councillors, and delegates to the electoral college.

Other new provisions of interest are the second paragraph of article 13 which says that a law is retroactive when it takes away acquired rights; the fact that religious liberty does not include freedom to follow forbidden forms of worship (art. 18); the extension of trial by jury from purely criminal matters to political crimes, committed through the press or otherwise (art. 20); the granting of freedom to organize societies, which may not be subject to any restriction whatever (art. 22); the obligatory use of the French language in all public services, now only in administrative and judicial matters (art. 25); and the addition of Flag Day, May 18, to the brief list of national holidays (art. 124).

The present officials, irrespective of the length of term for which they were elected, are to hold office until 1936. The term of members of municipal councils will end on January 10, that of deputies and Senators, including the Senators elected in the course of the present Legislature, on the first Monday of April, and that of the President of the Republic, on May 15.—B. N.



## NEW CIVIL RIGHTS FOR MARRIED WOMEN IN COLOMBIA

Under the Civil Code of Colombia, the civil rights of married women have been extremely limited. The husband was expressly declared head of the conjugal partnership, and in that capacity he ordinarily administered both the common property and that of his wife, and was responsible for all debts incurred by himself or by her. She had no legal claim on any of the common property as long as the partnership lasted. Except with the written permission of her husband, no married woman could appear in court, enter into any contract, withdraw from a former one, remit a debt, accept or repudiate a gift, inheritance, or legacy, acquire property for or without a consideration, or alienate, mortgage, or bind her property.

Certain civil rights have now, however, been conceded to married women by Law 28, promulgated by President Olaya Herrera on November 12, 1932.

According to the new law, during the term of the marriage either husband or wife may freely administer and dispose of, not only the property belonging respectively to him or to her at the time of the marriage, or which he or she may have brought to it, but also all property individually acquired since. Now, too, each partner is responsible for the debts which he or she personally contracts, except those to satisfy the ordinary needs of the home or to care for, educate, and start the children in life. Outright gifts and real estate contracts, except those of general or limited powers of attorney, are declared null and void between husband and wife. When the husband administered the entire estate, such a provision was of course unnecessary, but now that each administers his or her own property, this article was included presumably to prevent fraud. In the case of the dissolution or other civil termination of a marriage, all outstanding liabilities are to be paid from the common property or from that which each one administers separately; the remaining liquid assets will then be divided according to the provisions of the Civil Code.

A married woman, unless a minor, may now testify in court and administer and dispose of her property without permission from her husband or from the court; her husband is no longer her legal representative.

Since, heretofore, according to the Civil Code, the husband was the administrator of his wife's estate, he automatically became her guardian if she married while still a minor. The new law provides that in the selection of a guardian for a married minor, her husband should normally be the first choice.

In the case of couples already married when the law was passed, both husband and wife are legally empowered to decide, without the necessity of legal recourse and without prejudice to third persons, which part of the property belongs to each, in accordance with this law; if the common property acquired during the marriage is to be distributed, each will be credited with his or her respective part. Both husband and wife are jointly liable for any resultant damages which third persons may claim by due process of law, without prejudice to the fact that redress can be had from the common property to be divided.

Questions arising between husband and wife or their successors as to the application of this law are to be decided by the legal procedure provided by article 1203 of the Judicial Code.—B. N.

## DIAMOND PRODUCTION AND FIELDS IN BRAZIL <sup>1</sup>

The following paragraphs are taken from a report of the United States Commercial Attaché at Rio de Janeiro, who secured his information from both official and unofficial sources.

### *Exports of precious stones (principally diamonds) from Brazil*

Year	Invoice value, contos	Equivalent, pounds sterling
1927.....	13, 916	339, 000
1928.....	15, 638	384, 000
1929.....	9, 427	232, 000
1930.....	3, 982	89, 000
1931.....	2, 935	45, 000

It should be remembered that these figures do not by any means cover all exports of precious stones, especially of diamonds, from Brazil, since smuggling of them, to avoid the export taxes, is prevalent. The domestic consumption, until the past three years, was heavy also, since such adornment is common to every Brazilian who has the money. No reliable records are kept as to domestic sales.

Besides in the four principal diamond-producing zones (called "Chapadas")—Chapada do Norte, Chapada do Oeste, Chapada da Bahia, and Chapada do Matto Grosso—these stones are found in greater or lesser abundance in other regions. In Goyaz, in the Verissimo River Valley, near the Crystaos Mountains, a stone was once found weighing 600 carats, but it was shattered on an anvil by a workman who wished to see how hard it was. The river is also

<sup>1</sup> See "Diamantina, the First Diamond Center of Brazil," by Annie D'Armond Marchant, pp. 87—100.

known for its production of rose-colored stones. In the State of Parana small stones are found in the valleys and headwaters of the Tibagy, Pitangay, Cinzas, Yapó, Jaguariahyba, and Jordao Rivers. The State of Sao Paulo also produces small ones in the valleys of the Grande (where one of 18 carats has been found), Verde, Parana, Panapanoma, and Sapucahy-Mirim Rivers.

The Chapada do Norte (of Minas Geraes) includes the municipalities of Diamantina, Serro, and Conceição. The town of the same name in the first-mentioned municipality is famous for diamond production. In its vicinity diamond-bearing gravels are found in the alluvial valleys of the Inferno, Lava-pes, Poçao do Moreira, Guinda, Boa Vista, Milho Verde, Barra, Bom Sucesso, and Lapa Rivers, and in the beds of the Gordo Grande, Gordo Pequeno, and Caldeiroses (Grupiaras). Gold and diamonds are obtained in the mines of Sao Joao da Chapada, Duro, Sorrinha, and Mondanha. Valuable gravel has also been observed, though so far not greatly worked, in the beds of the Garauninha, Carauna, Cipo das Pedras, Pinheiro, and Caetho-Mirim Rivers, in that region. In the Soberbo ravine, some 8 miles from the town of Grao-Mogul, diamond workings have long existed. The sestones are famous for their perfection and light-blue tints. The deposits in the Diamantina region are in "pipes," similar to those of South Africa, with covering of yellow clay and quartzite.

The Chapada do Oeste (of Minas Geraes) embraces the Rivers Abaete, Santo Antonio, Borrachudo, Indaia, Somno, and Almae, in the districts of Cannabravo, Catinga, and Bambuhy. Favorable formations also exist in the districts of Canastrao, Cachodira Mansa, and Abaeto Velho, as well as in the basin of the Paracatu River. One of the best-known workings in this Chapada is the mine at the town of Bagagom, called "Estrella do Sul," where, in 1853, the largest Brazilian diamond was found, weighing 254 carats, and called after the name of the mine. At the same mine, in 1857, a stone of 117 carats was found, later known as the "Dresden," and in 1909, in the headwaters of the Riberao da Agua Suja, another was found of 174 carats, to which was given the name of "Estrella de Minas." Also in that year a yellow diamond was found there that sold in London for £3,000.

The diamond fields of Bagagem and of Agua Suja lie in the basin of the Paranahyba River, a tributary of the Parana. The region comprised between the Serra Matta da Corda and Canastra, along the headwaters of the Sao Francisco River, belong to this zone also. Along the bed of the Abaeta River the old workings on average produced 4 carats to 10 cubic meters of material moved. In this valley, on the side opposite the watershed between the Parana and Sao Francisco Rivers, stones are still encountered of 100 carats or more.

In the alluvial bed at Abbadia dos Dourados one was found weighing 195.

From 1905 to 1907 the mines of Douradinho, in the Coromandel district, produced large quantities of small diamonds, and also 23 of notable size, one of which weighs 97 carats. In general, the mines in the Chapada da Costa do not produce such great quantities of stones, but they are unsurpassed in size, purity, and variety of colors. In May, 1923, an individual "panner" in the bed of the Carmo River, near the town of Mariannas, found an extraordinary blue stone of 23 carats, of octahedral pyramid shape, with curved faces, clear and without a flaw.

The Chapada da Bahia, or diamondiferous sections of the State of Bahia, are located in the basin of the Garayuossu River and its principal tributary, the Santo Antonio, embracing in the latter (1) the headwaters and tributaries of the Paraguassu as far as Passagem of Andarahy, (2) from Andarahy to the village of Bebedouro, and (3) from Bebedouro to the town of Maragogipe. In these regions the workings have been made in the districts of Santa Isabel, Chique-Chique, Andarahy, Lençoes, and Palmeiras. The Bahia districts are notable for production of "carbonados," or black industrial stones.

The diamond region of the upper Paraguassu River extends in ramifications to the upper Contas River (Alto Rio de Contas), Itapicuru, and along the western side of the Sao Francisco River Basin. Well-known workings occur in Bandeira do Mello or Mucuge, on the Paraguassu River; in Andarahy, where they are old; in the Lençoes district, adjacent to the town of that name; in Gonipapo, new mines; in Desbarrahcado, and also modern workings in the district of Lavras Diamantinas.

In 1895 there was taken from the Lençoes deposits the largest carbonado ever found, weighing 3,150 carats. Such stones of from 500 to 1,000 carats are not rare. An entirely distinct district in the southern part of the State, that of Cannavieiras, in the basin of the Salobre River, has also been productive of carbonados.

The Chapada do Matto Grosso is comprised of the district between the headwaters of the Paraguay, Arinos, and das Nortes Rivers. In the headwaters region of the Paraguay stones have been found in the tributaries Sant' Anna, Areias, Brumado, Burityzal, Sipatuba, Pary, Ouro, and Cabacal Rivers. Also diamond-bearing gravel exists in the beds of the Barreiros, Garcas, and Cayapo Grande Rivers, tributaries of the upper Araguaya; these sands are also gold bearing, and some are now in active exploitation. Good results have also been encountered along the Coxipo Assu and the Coxipo-do-Ouro, tributaries of the Cuyaba, some of the beds yielding about one-half carat to the ton of gravel.



Recent newspaper articles state that a cooperative project is under way near the town of Diamantino (to be distinguished from Diamantina of Minas Geraes) to divert the water of the upper Paraguay River near its source to another channel, since tests have indicated that the sands at the bottom of the river are rich in diamonds and gold.

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## FEMINIST UNION OF CHILE

On October 27, 1932, the U. F. Ch. (Unión Feminina de Chile) of Valparaíso celebrated the fifth anniversary of its founding. According to the statutes of the society, which was incorporated in April 1931, its purposes are the improvement of the civil, political, and economic condition of women; favorable labor legislation and fair remuneration for them; care for destitute children; promotion of interest in the fine arts; maintenance of close relations with other organizations interested in any phase of the well-being of women; and the discussion and study of these and related problems in magazines, pamphlets, and lectures. The statutes definitely exclude from the province of the society anything having to do with party politics or religious questions. There are four classes of membership, active, passive, cooperative, and honorary; while all members may join in the discussion at any meeting, only active members may vote.

Since August, 1931, the U. F. Ch. has published *Nosotras*, which appears twice a month. Through its 8 or 10 pages the reader is given information about influential Chilean and foreign women, past and present, the progress of enlightened legislation, and interesting activities by and for women. The issue for November 15, 1932, contains the report for the year presented at the annual meeting by Sra. Delia Ducoing de Arrate, president of the union.

Señora de Arrate stressed the fact that the society, while keeping to its policy of not becoming involved in politics, had not diminished its efforts to obtain full legal rights for Chilean women. At a meeting of representatives of women's organizations held at the University of Santiago in January, 1931, the U. F. Ch. sent as delegates three officers, who warmly supported the aspirations of the women of Chile. A communication to the Government, subscribed to by all the women's societies of Aconcagua, requesting suffrage for women was presented to President Montero by a group of women which included members of the U. F. Ch. A commission of three officers of the society went to the capital in July to ask again for suffrage for women, the abolishment of the decree imposing a tax on bachelors, and protection for women workers.

Although all other activities, cultural and social, are subordinate to the quest for civil and political rights, they were not neglected. The forums held Wednesday mornings brought before the members of the society distinguished men and women who spoke on suffrage, social problems, civic education, and kindred subjects. Cultural, commercial, and technical courses, free to members on the payment of a small matriculation fee, were offered, and attended by 256 students. The classes ranged in subject matter from stenography, typewriting, and automobile mechanics to dressmaking, millinery, and modern languages. Books were being collected to start a library, a tea room had been opened, and the sports department was increasingly popular. A swimming club, already associated with the Swimming Association of Valparaíso, was formed in the department, and at the time the report was delivered had 35 members; tennis enthusiasts were agitating the formation of a tennis club which, it was expected, would soon be organized.

The activities of the U. F. Ch. in the field of social service have included collaboration in collecting funds for a seaside sanatorium for undeveloped children and for a consultation clinic for mothers; the collection of books and magazines for the unemployed; a Christmas party for 500 children of unemployed parents, at which toys and clothing were distributed; special rates for members for medical attention, nursing, and dental services; and a free legal aid department which members of provincial branches as well as local members are free to consult.

Representatives and branches of the U. F. Ch. are to be found throughout Chile, from Arica to Magallanes. In February, 1931, a group of nearly 100 members chartered a special train for an excursion through southern Chile, as far as Puerto Montt. The itinerary was planned so that the party went and returned by different routes, and the program made provision for side excursions to other points of interest. In the larger cities entertainments were given, often in hastily improvised theaters, at which Sra. Doreen Young de Caballero and her pupils gave programs of classical dancing, and members of the society spoke on its aims and activities. As a result of the trip, new contacts were established in six cities.—B. N.

## THE URUGUAYAN SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

According to a report received from Dr. Juan Rodríguez López, president of the Uruguayan Society of Political Economy of Montevideo, Uruguay is soon to have a School of Economics and Business Administration. After an intensive 8-year campaign on the part of professional men and students, a law has been passed authorizing the establishment of the *Facultad de Ciencias Economicas y de Administración*, which is to take the place of the former Superior School of Commerce (*Escuela Superior de Comercio*). The school is to be opened during the present year and will be a part of the University of Montevideo.

Entrance requirements for the new school include, in addition to a regular secondary-school education, the completion of a 2-year professional preparatory course. Upon the satisfactory termination of its 4-year course the school will grant the degree of public accountant, which permits the holder to practice in this field anywhere in Uruguay. Provision is also made for the granting of the degree of doctor in economics and business administration for those students who, having finished the 4-year course, take special seminar courses and present a satisfactory thesis. The postgraduate seminars will be an innovation in Uruguayan university life. Special courses will also be conducted for those who can not satisfy the entrance requirements but want to qualify for positions as public translators, stenographers, or bookkeepers, or desire to prepare for entrance into the Government service.

The school will be administered by a dean responsible to an honorary governing board of 10 members, 5 of whom will be elected by the faculty of the school, 3 by the undergraduate and postgraduate students, and 2 by public accountants. Their term of office will be two years. Members of the faculty may not represent the student body on the board.



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THE NATIONAL PALACE, PORT-AU-PRINCE, HAITI

MARCH

1933

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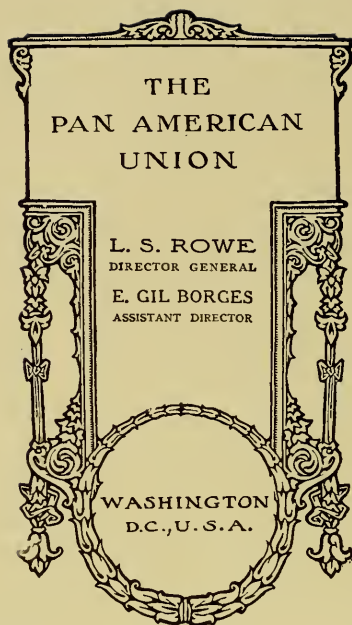
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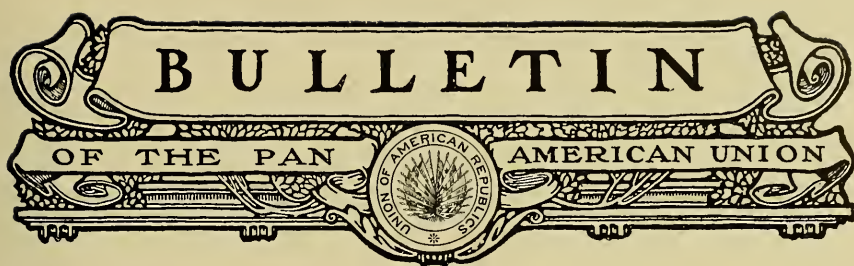
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GEN. TIBURCIO CARÍAS ANDINO, PRESIDENT OF  
HONDURAS

General Carías was inaugurated for four years on February 1, 1933, in Tegucigalpa. A graduate of the law school of the Central University of Honduras, General Carías has been Commander and Governor of the Departments of Copán and Cortés, delegate to the Central American Constituent Assembly in 1921, President of the National Congress several times, Minister of the Interior and Justice, and Major General in the Army.



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## FOLLOWING THE SOUTHERN CROSS IN CHILE

By RUTH SEDGWICK

CHILE is in truth a highway that runs down the Continent of South America, between the Andes and the Atlantic. When viewed from an airplane, it seems to lie imprisoned between the ocean and the cordillera, so that it can almost be imagined that what some one once said is true—that the Chileans must cling to the mountain sides in order to keep from falling into the sea.

This ribbon of land varies considerably in width, ranging from about 250 miles at the broadest point to only a few miles at the tip of the continent.

But what Chile may lack in width is made up in length, for the country stretches from north to south more than 2,500 miles from about 17° south latitude to nearly 57°. Let us suppose that this republic were lying in the Northern Hemisphere. Beginning at about Mexico City, it would extend across northern Mexico and the United States, reaching almost to the middle of Canada.

With this sweep of about 40° of latitude, almost twice the distance from the tip of Texas to the northern end of Lake Superior, Chile can naturally boast of a great variety of climates. In this connection, it has been rather picturesquely said that Chile's head is burning with fever from the tropical sun, while her feet are ice cold from the South Pole. A traveler going from Arica to Cape Horn would pass from the barren nitrate plateaus, where nature offers of her own free will no blade of grass nor bloom to soften the arid landscape, through the well-cultivated fields and valleys of the center, down into the tall forests reflecting themselves in the placid lakes, then winding in and out among the islands, peninsulas, and fiords known as the "canals" (where people will tell you that it rains 13 months of the year), and

once again into barren country, swept by the cold winds and snows of the Strait of Magellan.

With the happy combination of such a variety of climates and a very fertile soil, Chile can offer almost any kind of natural or agricultural product. In fact, her very name testifies to long-standing fame in this matter, for one of the most accepted theories of the origin of the word "Chile" is that of its derivation from a Quechua (Indian) word "Chili," which meant "cream of the land," this being the term that the invading Incas used to refer especially to the valley of the Aconcagua River, in the center of the country. One is, indeed, amazed at the size of the fruits and vegetables which, like Jack's beanstalk (beans are, by the way, the standard daily dish of the Chilean laborer), seem to spring up overnight.

The Chileans are especially proud of those products that are native to their country, some of which are very interesting to the traveler. In the line of sea food the country offers a great variety, including various kinds of fish as well as shellfish, such as the enormous clams called *chorros*, and the juicy lobsters from the Juan Fernandez (Robinson Crusoe) Islands. There are many interesting trees in the extensive virgin forests of the south, perhaps the most beautiful of these being the *pehuén*, bearing that long, thin nut called *piñón*, and the majestic *araucaria* tree, so beloved by the Araucanian Indians. On the island of Chiloe, west of the southern coast of Chile, excellent potatoes are found growing wild. The center of the country is the habitat of the so-called Chilean palm, with its picturesque large trunk and small tuft of leaves, under which hide bunches of tiny coconuts. From the trunk is extracted great quantities of sap used for making a delicious sirup called *miel de palma* (palm honey).

With its variety of products, climate, and scenery, Chile has much to offer the tourist; yet most travelers, unfortunately, know only a small part of its charms. If they come by sea, they probably arrive at the harbor of Valparaiso. The view of its horseshoe-shaped port, stretching up onto seven hills, is very beautiful, especially at night, when it looks like a huge amphitheater full of lights. If one arrives on a very clear day, one may see gleaming in the far distance, behind the northern point of the bay, the snowpeak of Mount Aconcagua, the highest peak of all the Americas, rising more than 22,000 feet above sea level. Most travelers stay just long enough in Valparaiso to experience being lifted up some of the hills by means of those little elevators that save one from climbing up the very steep streets, and to visit the fashionable all-year-round shore resort of Viña del Mar.

Then they usually go direct to the capital, Santiago, where they visit the beautiful race course, public buildings and churches, and the lovely parks, especially those upon the two hills rising within the city itself—San Cristobal with its large, protecting statue of the Virgin,

and Santa Lucia, covered with lacy-leaved pepper trees and tropical underbrush, at whose very feet was built the original city, founded by Pedro de Valdivia and his soldiers on February 12, 1541. From these hills one has beautiful views of the city, stretching out to the foot of the Andes, whose snow-capped peaks are tinged at sunset with the most harmonious shades of pink, yellow, and lavender.

After this, the tourist usually abandons Chile, either by the Trans-andine Railroad or the airplane route. But he misses a section which is perhaps more typical and picturesque than any other; that is, southern Chile.

#### THE BATTLE OF MAIPÚ MONUMENT

On the plain of Maipú, the decisive battle in the Chilean revolt against Spanish rule was fought on April 5, 1818.



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

A trip to the south should be made in the Chilean summer—in January or February, for the rainfall is heavy, and almost constant, during the other months of the year. In summer a train leaves Santiago daily—a very comfortable train, with dining and sleeping cars. If the trip to the lake region is made direct, to the station of Puerto Varas or Puerto Montt, it will take a day and a night. For the round trip, special rates are offered, the fare last year having been 150 pesos, which of course does not include meals or sleeper.

En route there are some cities which the leisurely traveler might like to visit. There is Rancagua, the capital of a province. Its plaza and church witnessed the tragic siege of 1814, resulting in the



victory by the Spaniards that for several years quelled the Chilean Revolution. The region of Talca is also of historic interest, since near that city was fought in 1818 another battle of the War of Independence, that of Cancha Rayada. Chillan, with its five plazas, is considered the cradle of O'Higgins, one of the fathers of Chilean independence. A side trip can be made to Concepcion near the mouth of the Bio-Bio River, seat of the University of Concepcion and the largest city in the south. Near it are the coal mines and so-called "park" at Lota, which was formerly an estate of the wealthy Cousiño family, owner of the mines, but which now belongs to the mining company itself. There is a wide variety of trees and flowers, both native and foreign, and between them one glimpses lovely vistas of the very blue Pacific beating against its rocky shores. Going in the opposite direction, one can take a side trip toward the mountains, visiting the Falls of Laja.

Further south lies Temuco in Araucania, the region of the Araucanian Indians, where fertile fields of vegetables and grains and huts called *rucas* are stretched along the railroad for many miles. The women, who wear beautiful silver earrings, necklaces, and huge flat-headed pins, come into the city to sell their produce or rugs, or perhaps to visit the court where their own lawsuits are tried, with the assistance of interpreters. From here a trip can be made by automobile to the picturesque country around Pucon, lying on Lake Villarica, at the foot of the Villarica Volcano, whose almost perfect snow-capped cone rises 9,400 feet. Further to the south one may diverge from the main route to the prosperous city of Valdivia, situated on a veritable network of rivers almost where they empty into the Pacific. This is the center of the German colony that spread all through the mainland of southern Chile and that has done much in opening up this part of the country. Still another side trip can be made from the city of Osorno, visiting the lake and waterfalls of Puyehue, which many consider one of the loveliest sights in all Chile.

We begin our trip through what is generally known as the Chilean lake region by getting off the train at Puerto Varas, a very picturesque town stretching along the shores of Lake Llanquihue. At dawn we start across the lake in a small steamer which skirts the shore and stops at several little ports. The vegetation attracts our attention: tall bushes of wild fuchsia with bright, nodding blossoms, and underbrush of that large-leaved plant called *pangue* or *nalca*, used by the Indians as sunshades or to roof their *rucas*, and also as food, the stalk being excellent in salad. As our boat winds in and out along the shores of the lake, between the delicate foliage, we catch glimpses of the snow-capped peak of the volcano called Osorno, 8,700 feet high, which many a traveler has compared with Fujiyama. We also see

another slightly lower volcano, Calbuco, whose dark, flat top is almost always covered with a cloud.

At noon we are near both of these mountains, when we reach the settlement at the head of the lake called Ensenada. After lunching at the hotel, an automobile takes the passengers across a narrow lava-covered strip of land to Lake Todos los Santos (All Saints), also called Lake Esmeraldas (Emerald) because of the beautiful green color of its waters. Here we board another small boat. Because of the panorama of mountain peaks on all sides, this is, for

#### OSORNO VOLCANO

In this view from the steamer on Lake Llanquihue the majestic snow-capped peak bears a striking resemblance to Fujiyama.



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

some people, the most beautiful of all the Chilean lakes. Osorno and Calbuco are still close, but behind us; the needlelike point of Puntia-gudo is almost beside us; while in front of us, in the distance, gleams the white glacier on Mount Tronador. The whole landscape—these Andean peaks as a background, the clear, green waters beneath, bordered by verdant underbrush and tall trees—makes this region a Mecca for artists and tourists.

Peulla, at the end of the lake, is reached by nightfall; and there, exactly in front of our hotel, rises straight up like a wall the steep, flat-topped mountain called the Tejado (Roof). Early the next



LAKE FRÍA AND MOUNT TRONADOR, CHILE

Fed by glaciers of Mount Tronador and closed in by steep tree-clad mountain slopes, Fría is one of the most picturesque lakes of the "Switzerland of America."

morning we continue, in a large autobus, to cross the Perez Rosales Pass into Argentina. When we reach the foot of the steep climb that will take us over the border, we must stop at the customhouse known as Casa Pangue. At our feet are growing wild the beautiful stalks of digitalis, while just in front of us, up the river valley, Tronador, 11,400 feet high, stands out clearly. Slowly the road winds up and up, among the tall, thick underbrush which, in spite of its compactness, seems dainty because of the feathery leaves of the Chilean bamboo called *quila*, and underneath the enormous trees whose tops join overhead and are hardly visible to the eye. At last we get out at the top. This is the boundary line with Argentina, which is marked by a post. Because the descent is steep and difficult, we must go a short distance on the horses which are waiting for us, and as we go down we catch glimpses between the dainty fanlike foliage of the coigüe trees of the small lake called Laguna Frias.

Again we get into a boat, and once out in the middle of the lake, we realize that this sheet of water is completely encased by mountainous cliffs, rising directly out of the water and overhung with small green plants and ferns which seem to be growing right out of the side of the rock. Behind us we have another view of Mount Tronador, and if we are quiet we can hear the rumbling of its glacier, from which it has received its ominous name, which means "Rumbler."

After reaching the end of this lake, and riding once again in a motor car, we reach the hotel at Puerto Blest. This is on the fingerlike inlet of Lake Nahuel Huapi, a large and very beautiful lake on whose shores, a few hours away by boat, lies the city of Bariloche, terminus of the Argentine railroad which takes us in 48 hours to Buenos Aires.

Our route has taken us over the most southern of all the frequented passes of the Andes, and although it is much longer, it is no more expensive than the Transandine railroad. It is true that here we may miss those awe-inspiring, rugged mountains that are to be seen from the train as it goes through the Uspallata Pass at 12,600 feet above sea level, yet the southern route offers beauty of a different type. In comparison with the barrenness of the mountains in the north, the trees and underbrush here seem especially thick and verdant; while each lake has its own individuality in color, vegetation, and mountain background, and each seems more beautiful than the other. Indeed, this lake region has been rightly called the "Switzerland of America."

Chile offers another southern route to Argentina, by water, much more roundabout, yet with special compensations for the lover of natural beauty. I refer to the route further to the south, through the straits, fiords, and narrow passages known as the "canals," leading into the Strait of Magellan, and through it into the Atlantic Ocean.

For this trip we take the boat at Puerto Montt, which is not far from Puerto Varas, and which is the terminus of the railroad from



Santiago. Puerto Montt, a picturesque city, built partly on a bluff overlooking its lovely harbor and the island of Tenglo, is the mainland port for the islands and deeply indented coast line that stretches down to the strait.

We do not take one of the larger boats which must keep out into the Pacific, but find a smaller boat more interesting, for it can wind its way through the inner passages. At first several stops are made at the large island of Chiloe, whose principal cities are Ancud and Castro. Among other things the island is noted for its excellent potatoes and



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

#### OVERLOOKING PUERTO MONTT

A good view of the harbor and city of Puerto Montt, the southern railroad terminal, is obtained from the heights on Tenglo Island. In the foreground is a small shipyard.

beautifully hand-woven woolen rugs and blankets. Its fields are well cultivated in small square plots, so that the hillsides have the appearance of patchwork quilts. Everything is very green from frequent rains, and the small red-roofed houses with many a church steeple nestle picturesquely here and there on the hillside. The women are famous rowers, and one looks at them with envy as they ply their little boats, perhaps en route from one town to another to sell their produce, while the husband stays at home to till the fields. The boys are of course excellent boatmen, and the Chilean Navy is proud of its

*Chilote* officers and sailors. Sea food is naturally abundant, and at every hand nets are lying at the water's edge, waiting for the owner to come to pull in his catch.

If we are fortunate enough to be invited to a picnic party, we may enjoy the famous *curanto*, prepared in a hole made in the sand or ground, in which stones are first heated over red-hot ashes. After the ashes are removed, one places among the stones various kinds of clams, oysters, a special kind of potato cake called *milcudo*, batter for rolls called *chapalelas*, and, arranged either in pans or separated from the rest by *pangue* leaves, are sausages, lamb, fish, cheese, etc. All of this is covered with *pangue* leaves and burlap bags, upon which is placed turf. After the mixture has cooked for an hour or so, and streams of escaping vapor and the tempting odor of the food announce its readiness to the hungry guest, the top is removed. Everything is either eaten together on a large plate, or separately, according to taste, and each thing tastes much better than if it were cooked in the ordinary way.

The *Chilotes* are proud of the large percentage of pure Spanish blood in their veins, which is said to be evident in their pronunciation, vocabulary, and customs. This may perhaps be due to their insular position, or to the fact that Spanish troops evacuated the region years after leaving the rest of Chile.

We finally leave Chiloe, and sail on toward the south. Unfortunately we can not visit the city of Aysen, a fairly new settlement on the mainland. Perhaps for days now we do not meet a human soul, with the possible exception of some nomadic *chono* (Indian) family that rows its canoe swiftly alongside the boat to beg for provisions. Yet many birds wheel above and many fish swim beside the boat, and perhaps a whale may wander in from the Pacific to blow us, from a distance, a watery greeting.



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

#### A CHILEAN PICNIC

A treat for the visitor to southern Chile is the famed *curanto* which is shown being uncovered. Clams, oysters, other fish, meats, potato cakes, rolls and other foods are cooked over hot stones in a hole dug in the ground.

With the exception of two boisterous gulfs, the waters are placid; and the boat winds in and out between the islands at our right, separating us from the Pacific, and the mountainous mainland at our left, indented by narrow inlets and harbors. At sunset, when the afterglow falls on these snow-capped peaks, there are beautiful vistas up along the fiords, reaching perhaps to the very foot of a glacier. But at night the stillness and beauty of everything is especially impressive; and as we look into the star-laden sky we see just ahead of us that most romantic of all constellations, the Southern Cross, with



THE PANGUE PLANT

This unusual plant, also known as "nalca," is common to southern Chile. The stalks are edible, while the leaves are sometimes used as sunshades or to cover the Indian huts, or "rucas."

its four stars looking almost like a square tipped up on one point. It is our guide, and leads us on toward the South Pole.

We glide silently from one canal into another, hardly knowing how, for it often seems as though we are going to sail straight into a mountain. The captain has called us up on the bridge, and says with a twinkle in his eye, "Now, tell me; how do you think we are going to get out of this canal?" We look around in vain, for there is apparently no exit; but just as the boat seems about to crash into the land, it swings sharply to the right, and there is a narrow passage in front.



Such a one is the famous *Angostura Inglesa* (English Narrows), through which the boat can pass only at high tide. All hands are on deck, while one of the officers has gone to the very tip of the prow, where he watches the water intently. The boat just crawls along. We all wait with bated breath as it glides perfectly between the two points of land with only a few feet to spare on each side.

We must also wait for high tide to go through the Paso Kirke, at the mouth of the narrow inlet in the Ultima Esperanza region, running up to Natales and Puerto Bories. Here there is a meat-packing establishment which prepares and ships lamb from the large ranches that spread far back into Argentine Patagonia. The region is of interest to scientists because of a cave in which were found the bones of a native South American dinosaur.

Ever since we left Chiloe, the scenery has become gradually bleaker and more barren. The sheer rocks rise higher and higher. The snow-capped Andes draw closer, and finally the blue glaciers come all the way down to the water's edge, even in summer shooting off small icebergs.

At last we reach the Strait of Magellan, and as we turn into it, we see close by, at our right, the Pacific Ocean. But we sail down the strait to the left, with land on both sides—at our left islands and peninsulas of the mainland, and at our right a series of islands, the largest of which is commonly known to us by the name of Tierra del Fuego.

The strait is about 200 miles long, and not far from the Atlantic we reach the most austral city in the whole world, Magallanes, formerly known as Punta Arenas. It is situated at about 53° south latitude, while the tip of New Zealand does not reach 50° nor the Cape of Good Hope 40°. Of course there are towns of more or less size further south in Tierra del Fuego, such as Progreso, but Magallanes is quite a city.

As our eye sweeps over the city from the boat-laden harbor, we see nothing but bleakness, for the low surrounding hills, which even in summer have patches of snow, can support only sparse grass. We disembark at a fine, long pier, beside the tall cranes which did so much hoisting of cargo in the good old days of prosperity when, before the opening of the Panama Canal, opera and theatrical companies would often stop in Magallanes en route from Europe or Buenos Aires to the western coast of South America.

In the center of the city there is a pretty plaza whose trees, grass, and flowers are tended with great care, while in the middle stands a statue of Magellan, the first to explore the strait, in 1520. Around the plaza are found good-sized stores and beautiful houses, which belong to those very wealthy families that own almost all of the commercial activities of the region (ranches, boat lines, stores, etc.).

For some distance the city spreads out along the water front; it also extends up on the ridge. Because of the wind which blows strong and



cold during the day, these steep streets are difficult to climb; yet we must go up to see the skating pond which is very popular in winter when the snow is cleared off, and the little zoo of animals caught from the surrounding region, which includes pumas, foxes, and many small animals, as well as a condor or two. Because of the very nature of the region, the chief industry is sheep growing. Consequently, with the exception of meat, foodstuffs are expensive, for vegetables are either raised under very special conditions or brought from the north. In the line of clothing one finds a great many Argentine articles, probably because it takes less time from Magallanes to reach Buenos Aires than Santiago.



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

#### THE PASO KIRKE, NEAR NATALES

The voyage by small steamers through the narrow canals of southern Chile is a thrilling experience. The passage through Paso Kirke in the Última Esperanza region must be made at high tide.

Since roads are good, it is interesting to visit some of the enormous sheep ranches and meat-packing houses. Life on these ranches must be sad in winter, but in summer, during the shearing season, it seems gay. The labor reminds one of the so-called "swallow" tide that used to come each year from Europe to Argentina for the harvest season. To Magallanes come expert shearers from Scotland and England, who return immediately after the season is over, while the *Chilotes* furnish the inexpert labor, coming down third class on the boats each summer and returning to their beloved island to spend the winter. Many English people live permanently on the ranches, and the English influence, which was probably much more marked in the past, is

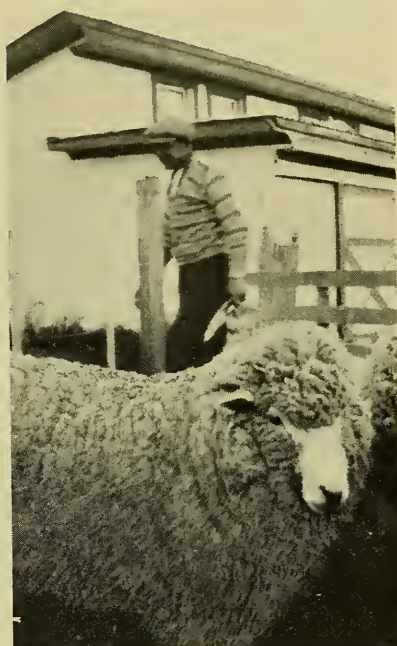
seen in the fact that one hears prices of certain things quoted in pounds, while in the city itself Yugoslav settlers seem to be very active in commercial enterprises. While riding through the ranches we see large flocks of sheep, some with very thick wool, while others look pitifully naked, just turned away from the shearers' hands. Every now and then timid ostriches gallop off as fast as lightning, followed perhaps by a baby ostrich, hatched from one of those large eggs that could have made an omelet for a dozen or so guests.

The most extensive ranches are across the strait, in Tierra del Fuego, where one finds in the more isolated regions the *Fueguino* Indians. They are a nomadic type of indigenes who live by fishing and hunting and who are quite different from any of the other South American tribes. Their life can be studied in Magallanes itself, in the interesting regional museum. The canals, mountains, and glaciers of Tierra del Fuego are said to be even more beautiful than those we have already seen on the mainland.

Of all the interesting features of Magallanes, the climatic conditions perhaps attract our attention most. The wind and cold, even in mid-summer, make us realize how far south we must be; and when it rains, as it often does, we need a fire. In order to receive as much sunshine as possible, many of the houses are built with northern exposures. This of course seems

strange to us from the opposite hemisphere, as well as the fact that our shadows fall so much toward the south.

The sunsets were most beautiful in Magallanes. At this time of day, which in the middle of January is between half past 8 and 9 (daylight-saving time), the people often walk down to the pier, in order to have a full sweep of the sky before them. Even though it has been windy and rainy, the weather is likely to grow calm and clear in the late afternoon. After the sun has disappeared behind the hills



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

#### A PRIZE SHEEP AWAITING SHEARING

Sheep raising is the principal industry of the Magallanes region.

northwest of the city, all the sky is tinged with vivid red and yellow, and as we watch, the colors change from one shade to another. The afterglow lingers on and on, until eleven and later; and when all color has disappeared there is still a weird whitish-green light until one or two o'clock. One is told that in the very midst of summer it does not grow really dark all night long, while in the depths of winter lights have to be turned on in the middle of the afternoon.

As we gaze at this beautiful sunset, dying away in a darkless sky, in the perfect silence of the bleak landscape, we are well aware of the thrill of standing at the tip of South America, and not so very far from that region of the midnight sun—the Antarctic Circle.



THE STRAITS OF MAGELLAN

## DR. ENRIQUE FINOT, MINISTER OF BOLIVIA IN WASHINGTON

HIS Excellency Dr. Enrique Finot, upon coming to Washington as Minister of Bolivia to the United States, returned to the scene of previous diplomatic labors, for in 1929 he had represented his country on the Bolivia-Paraguay Commission of Investigation and Conciliation, and in 1931 and 1932 he had been Bolivian delegate plenipotentiary in the Chaco Conference. When presenting his letters of credence to President Hoover on December 6, Doctor Finot said:

. . . Sincere admirer of this great Nation and twice participator in the negotiations held in this capital to cooperate toward solution of problems affecting my country, I feel that the mission intrusted to me is especially gratifying and does me a great honor. . . .

Bolivia appreciates and values the amity of the United States of America and the good relations that at all times have existed between both countries, and it makes me happy to express to Your Excellency that in the fulfillment of my mission I shall exert every effort for the strengthening of these bonds. I am also glad to fulfill the special trust that I have received from His Excellency the President of Bolivia, to convey his very best wishes for the personal happiness of Your Excellency and for the welfare and prosperity of the American people.

President Hoover, accepting the Minister's letters of credence, said:

. . . May I assure you that the United States . . . appreciates and values the friendship of Bolivia and the cordial relations that have always so happily obtained between the two nations. Your previous experience in this capital should be useful in carrying out your mission; and you will find, I am happy to say, that the officers of my Government will be only too glad to cooperate with you toward the strengthening of these good relations between our two countries.

I desire, Mr. Minister, to convey through you to His Excellency the President of Bolivia, my best wishes for his personal welfare and for the prosperity and happiness of the Bolivian people.

Doctor Finot was born in Santa Cruz de la Sierra in 1892, and graduated from the University of Chuquisaca with a degree in education. He has held important positions in the Ministry of Public Instruction, including that of editor of *Educación Moderna*, the official publication of the department. As representative of his native city in the Chamber of Deputies, he served as chairman of the Committee on Diplomatic Affairs. He is at present vice president of the Nationalist Party of Bolivia and permanent secretary of the Bolivian Society of International Law, affiliated with the American Institute of International Law.





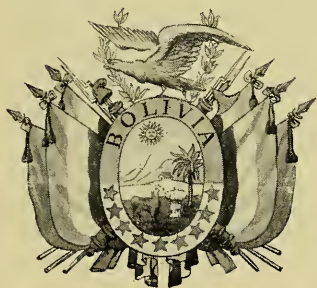
Photograph by Bachrach

DR. ENRIQUE FINOT, ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENI-  
POTENTIARY OF BOLIVIA IN THE UNITED STATES

As author and journalist, Doctor Finot is also well known. In the latter capacity has been owner or editor of several important newspapers, including *El Liberal*, *El Diario*, and *La Nación* of La Paz, *El País* of Sucre, and *El Oriente* of Santa Cruz. Among the volumes which he has published are *La Reforma Educacional en Bolivia*, *La Cuna de Monteagudo*, *Historia de la Pedagogía Boliviana*, *El Cholo Portales* (a novel), *El Ferrocarril Cochabamba-Santa Cruz*, *La Historia de Bolivia en Imágenes*, and *Nuevos Aspectos de la Cuestión del Chaco*.

His diplomatic career began in 1917, when he became eligible for the post of Secretary of Legation. During 1918, 1919, and 1920, he represented his country as chargé d'affaires in Peru, and in 1928 and 1929 he was Minister to Chile.

Doctor Finot has the honor of being one of the two living Bolivian citizens who have received the national decoration of the "Condor of the Andes," which was awarded him for distinguished services.



# A SCIENTIFIC RESURRECTION: THE MUTIS HERBARIUM AT MADRID

By ELLSWORTH P. KILLIP  
*United States National Museum*

LAST year there occurred the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of José Celestino Mutis, eminent botanist, astronomer, mathematician, and metallurgist of the New World, and appropriate ceremonies commemorative of the event were held in Spain and Colombia. Largely through coincidence, the same year witnessed the first examination of his vast collection of botanical specimens since the time they were shipped from Bogota to Madrid, in 1817, and the resumption of the studies of the collection commenced by Mutis and his noted European correspondents more than a century and a half ago.

Several accounts of the life and activities of Mutis have been published<sup>1</sup> in recent years, some in connection with the centennial of the establishment of the Republic of Colombia, some in commemoration of the bicentennial of the birth of Mutis. Regarding the thousands of herbarium specimens assembled by Mutis and almost untouched and unseen since 1817, the speculations have generally been that the ravages of insects, rodents, and mold had so completely ruined them that they were of little value to the scientist of to-day. That with the opening of the Mutis herbarium there would be presented to the botanical world a series of "duplicate types" of species proposed by Linnæus, Linnæus the Younger, Humboldt and Bonpland, Cavanilles, and Willdenow, in first-class condition, was never predicted by commentators of Mutis and his work.

Although it has been known that there were at Madrid many of the earliest collections made in the New World, there has been a mistaken belief that these collections were not readily available for consultation, and European botanists, as well as botanists from North and South America, have not given them as much study as they have those at London, Paris, Berlin, Geneva, Stockholm, Vienna, and other botanical centers. While engaged in examining at the Madrid Botanical Garden in the spring of 1932 the early American collections of Ruiz

<sup>1</sup> F. González Suárez, "Memoria histórica sobre Mutis y la expedición botánica de Bogotá en el siglo decimoctavo"; Diego Mendoza, "Expedición botánica de José Celestino Mutis al Nuevo Reino de Granada"; A. Federico Gredilla, "Biografía de José Celestino Mutis"; E. Pérez Arbeláez, "La Expedición Botánica," *Cromos*, Bogotá, April 2, 1932; "An Eighteenth Century Scientist in Colombia: José Celestino Mutis," *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union* 66: 401-404. June, 1932; Enrique Coronado Suárez, "El Sabio José Celestino Mutis, patriarca de los botánicos," *BOLETÍN de la Unión Panamericana*, July, 1932.

and Pavon, Née, and Sesse and Mociño and the manuscript accounts of South American exploration, I became interested in the paintings and drawings of Colombian plants made under the supervision of Mutis and preserved in the Garden's library. It was suggested that Prof. Arturo Caballero, of the Garden staff, and I sort over the Mutis specimens, and that a cooperative plan be entered into by the Madrid Botanical Garden and the Smithsonian Institution for the systematic classification of the specimens, leading, perhaps, to the publication of a flora of Colombia in accordance with the plans submitted by Mutis to the King of Spain in 1783. This work of rearranging the

JOSÉ CELESTINO MUTIS  
(1732-1808)

This portrait of the eminent botanist, mathematician, astronomist, philosopher, and naturalist, hangs in the National Astronomical Observatory at Bogotá, of which he was director for a number of years.



Courtesy of "Cromos" Bogotá

Mutis herbarium was taking place on April 6, the two hundredth anniversary of his birth, while in the adjoining auditorium exercises were being held in which the Colombian Minister to Spain joined Spanish officials in paying tribute to the pioneer Spanish scientist of the New World.

It is not necessary here to give more than a brief survey of the life of this many-sided man. We must, however, consider rather carefully the extent of his travels in Colombia and the sources from which he received material for his herbarium. Mutis was born at Cadiz, April 6, 1732. After graduation from the University of Seville in 1753, he



practiced medicine in Cadiz and Madrid. His inclination, however, lay strongly in the direction of mathematics and natural history, and during a three years' residence in Madrid (1757-1760) he was a pupil of the eminent botanist Barnades, and acquired familiarity with the new Linnæan method of taxonomy. He was chosen by the King of Spain to continue his scientific studies at Leyden and Paris, but the opportunity arising to join as physician the staff of La Cerda, the newly appointed viceroy to New Granada (now Colombia), he left Spain September 7, 1760, never again to return. He reached Bogota in February, 1761, and from then until his death in 1808 that city was the center of his manifold activities. The travels of Mutis in New Granada do not appear to have been extensive, though his interest in mineralogy and metallurgy, which largely occupied the early years of his residence, necessitated periods of stay at mines some distance from Bogota. From 1766 to 1770 we find him at the Montuosa Mines, in the jurisdiction of Pamplona, and from 1777 to 1782 at the mines of Sapo, jurisdiction of Ibagué. While engaged in these mining operations he was studying the rich plant and animal life to be found on all sides, making specimens, and sending samples to Linnæus and, after his death, to the younger Linnæus. In 1772 Mutis discovered quinine trees in the vicinity of Bogota, apparently the first record for New Granada. From that time on the subject of quinine, the different species, and the relative merits of the different barks interested him greatly, a posthumous work, *El arcano de la quina*, being published at Madrid in 1828.

As early as 1763 Mutis conceived the idea of a flora of Spanish America, but his first suggestion met with little response from the King of Spain. In 1783 he addressed a long letter to the Archbishop of Bogota, in which he gave an account of his botanical activities during 22 years' residence in New Granada, and outlined a plan for a flora of all the Andean region north of the Equator. The archbishop laid the matter before the King of Spain, Carlos III, a progressive sovereign, who issued a proclamation appointing Mutis First Botanist and Astronomer of the Royal Expedition to New Granada, and instructing him "to form herbaria and collections of natural products, describing and drawing the plants found in my fertile provinces, to enrich my Cabinet of Natural History and the Royal Botanic Garden, sending to Spain seeds and roots of the most useful plants and trees, especially such as are used or may be used in medicine or naval construction, in order to naturalize them in the Peninsula." Adequate funds were provided, and Mutis was now free to carry out his great project.

As first organized, the expedition consisted of Mutis, as chief, Eloy Valenzuela, curé of Bucaramanga, assistant, and Antonio García and Pedro Caballero, artists. Headquarters was established at Mariquita,



THE NATIONAL ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATORY, BOGOTA, COLOMBIA

Founded in 1802 by Mutis, this observatory has the distinction of being the first institution of its kind to be established in the Western Hemisphere.

a town in the present department of Tolima, in the foothills of the central Andes, selected, doubtless, because of Mutis' familiarity with the general region from his stay at the mines of Sapo.

In 1791 the expedition removed to Bogota, and for the next few years was at the zenith of its glory, taking on, we read, the aspect of a great scientific corporation. Its quarters were commodious, a large library was at its disposal, and 13 artists were working 9 hours a day painting the plants which Mutis and his associates brought in. Especially active during this period were Mutis' two nephews, José and Sinforoso Mutis, and José de Caldas, who was to be one of the first to die in the War of Independence soon to follow.

So great was the fame of Mutis that the distinguished explorers Humboldt and Bonpland determined to go from the north coast of Colombia to Quito by way of Bogota in order to visit him, rather than by the more direct route via Panama and Guayaquil. They were royally welcomed at Bogota by Mutis, and this city became their home for two months (July 6 to September 8, 1801). The drawings prepared under Mutis' direction, now 2,200 in number, and the herbarium specimens were enthusiastically examined. Humboldt says that he could only compare the herbarium that Mutis had amassed with that of Sir Joseph Banks, President of the Royal Society of London. Mutis gave Humboldt selected specimens, many of which were to become the types of species described in the *Plantas Equinoxiales*, a work dedicated to Mutis, and in the *Nova Genera et Species Plantarum*.

On September 11, 1808, seven years after the visit of Humboldt and Bonpland, Mutis died at Bogota at the age of 76. His nephew Sinforoso took over the direction of the expedition, but lacking the inspiring guidance of Mutis the activity gradually ceased. Revolution swept the country and many of Mutis' disciples joined the ranks of the revolutionists. During the vicissitudes of the struggle the headquarters of the expedition was once ransacked, and many priceless treasures were stolen or destroyed. In 1816 the Spanish general Morillo directed that the herbarium, manuscripts, and paintings be shipped to Madrid.

In compliance with this order there were sent to Madrid in 1817 104 boxes, of which the herbarium occupied 48, the paintings 14, and the manuscripts 1. Among other things sent at this time were seeds, wood specimens, minerals, and paintings of animals. The boxes were opened in the presence of the King of Spain, Fernando VII, and the royal family. Material of zoological and geological interest was transferred to the Museo de Ciencias, and the herbarium and botanical manuscripts and illustrations were deposited in the Royal Botanical Garden. Don Mariano Lagasca, the director of the



Garden, was commissioned to publish the *Flora of Bogotá*, as well as Mutis' papers on quinine.

Little appears to have been done by Lagasca or his successors on the *Flora*, largely, perhaps, because of the discovery that the precious manuscripts relating to the *Flora* had not been included in the shipment from Bogota. In 1881 José Triana, the eminent Colombian botanist, co-author of the *Prodromus Floræ Novo-Granatensis*, was authorized by the Spanish Government "to classify, name scientifically, and publish the drawings and paintings of the Flora and Fauna of Colombia." Triana, with his customary zeal, proceeded to sort the plates into genera and to prepare an index to them. The plates were placed in 44 folios, in which they are carefully preserved in the library of the Botanic Garden. Beyond this, Triana appears to have done nothing; certainly he made no attempt to associate with the



Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip

#### THE MUTIS HERBARIUM

This is one of the original packages of specimens shipped in 1816 from Colombia to the Madrid Botanical Garden where their classification has recently been undertaken.

illustrations the vast number of herbarium specimens, which remained in the original boxes until they were removed to cases in 1912.

What a tragedy that Mutis' magnum opus was never published! Many a genius has struggled against adversity during his lifetime, to win deserved recognition after death. Not so with Mutis. Glory and honor came to him during his long life from his compatriots of New Granada, from his fatherland, and from contemporaries all over Europe. A generous and appreciative sovereign placed abundant resources at his disposal; the royal representatives in his adopted country gave him whole-hearted support. Yet to-day Mutis is known in the botanical world chiefly as a pioneer collector, whose specimens were sent to others and described by them as new. How different, had Mutis commenced the publication of his *Flora* during his lifetime, and had been completed within the years immediately



following his death. To the scientist of to-day his name would then rank with those of Humboldt and Bonpland, of Ruiz and Pavón.

We can only speculate on the reasons for Mutis's failure to publish the early parts of his flora. He was 51 years of age when, in 1783, the expedition was organized and the preparation of the flora was actually begun. For one accustomed to the invigorating climate of Bogota, Mariquita was evidently an unhappy choice. During his later years there Mutis suffered a severe illness, which sapped much of his strength and vigor. The Spanish government in 1793 urged him to return to Spain to superintend the engraving of his drawings and the printing of his manuscript, but this he could not bring himself to do. An emissary, Francisco Martínez, was sent to Bogota in the same year to report upon the progress of the work. The concluding portion of his report is of special interest. "I saw," he says, "only the botanical drawings, which are very numerous and of great beauty. But considering that so much has been undertaken and so little finished and that the scientific part, including the descriptions and other literary features, is perhaps less advanced than that which I examined, I regret to say that, the health of this man being so poor and his age somewhat advanced, this work is exposed to an irremediable misfortune."

The work on the *Flora* involved three main things, collecting, painting, and describing the specimens. That Mutis was an ardent collector and that he surrounded himself with able artists and supervised their work most effectively is certain. But that he analyzed the plants, endeavored to associate with them descriptions of species already proposed, or formulated descriptions of new species and assigned names to them is not so evident. In fact, one is led to suspect that this part of the work did not appeal to him, especially in his later years, and that publication of the *Flora* was delayed because of the absence of these all-important descriptions. We found two detailed descriptions of species in Mutis' handwriting inserted with the specimens recently examined at Madrid, but except for those in his special work on *Cinchona* no other formal descriptions of species are available at the present time. None appear to have been included with the miscellaneous manuscripts received at Madrid in 1817. They may have been destroyed during the revolutionary days in Colombia, or they may be preserved in some out-of-the-way place in Bogota, where diligent search has failed to find them.

Though there may be doubt as to the completeness and value of the literary portion of the *Flora of Bogotá*, there can be no doubt as to the importance of the herbarium and the illustrations. The greater part of the herbarium is in a remarkably fine state of preservation, only a few groups, such as orchids, composites, gentians, and Leguminosæ, showing seriously the work of insects. Thousands and thousands of

the specimens are as well preserved as if they had been collected in the twentieth, instead of the eighteenth or early nineteenth, century. The packages, as we opened them, were 30 inches long and 20 inches wide, and averaged about a foot and a half in height. The specimens were laid on stiff brown or white paper, often on handwritten copies of official edicts, many of which were dated "Mariquita, 1787." The material was partially grouped according to plant families. Sometimes there were specimens of a dozen species of a genus on one

A SPECIMEN FROM  
THE MUTIS HERBA-  
RIUM

This specimen, *Escobedia grandiflora*, with Mutis's own label, is but one of 20,000 collected by him on his botanical expedition in Colombia in the eighteenth century.



*Escobedia grandiflora*  
L. C. Mutis, f.  
8

Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip

sheet, sometimes as many as 50 specimens clearly from a single tree. Frequently a single specimen was found isolated from its group and bearing a Roman numeral. Doubtless such specimens were kept out by Mutis for painting or for purposes of analysis.

No notes whatever are associated with the great majority of the specimens. In some instances a small slip of paper is attached to a plant bearing a numeral or a generic name or some such notation as *No. 25 de la Flora de Bogotá, Té de Bogotá, Chirco negro, or otra especie*

*del género Valenzuela, dedicado al D. D. Eloy Valenzuela, discípulo de D. José C. Mutis.* Invariably when a binomial was given, it was a name proposed by the younger Linnæus in the *Supplementum*, and material bearing this name should doubtless be considered a part of the type collection.

The specimens unfortunately were not accompanied by information as to the locality at which they were collected. From the preliminary studies that have been made we may assume that the greater part came from the general Bogota region, a smaller number from the vicinity of Mariquita. So far, no species endemic to Pamplona and the Montuosa region have been found among the species examined, a fact suggesting that Mutis did not make herbarium specimens during his residence at the mines of Montuosa or that, if he did, the material has not been preserved. In one bundle there was a small package of about 50 specimens labeled "El Chocó," all of which represent characteristic species of the Pacific littoral of northwestern Colombia, this material doubtless having been brought to Mutis by some traveler. Finally, there are a few, a very few, specimens of species that are known otherwise only from the mountains of what is now Ecuador. Possibly, in view of the fact that the *Flora* was originally intended to include all of the area between the Equator and the Isthmus of Panama, Mutis endeavored to obtain samples of Ecuadorean plants, but it is more probable that those elements in his herbarium are there merely by chance, having been received from a correspondent in Quito, and will not be found represented among his illustrations.

But even though locality data are wanting, the discovery of this vast herbarium in such an excellent state of preservation and the making of it available for consultation are of the greatest value to the scientific world. The younger Linnæus described 70 new species on the basis of material received from Mutis. Humboldt and Bonpland brought back specimens from Mutis' collection from which many new species were described. In most cases these "types" consist of a single specimen, and though conserved with the greatest care in the Linnæan Herbarium at London and in the Humboldt collections at Paris and Berlin they have, of course, been subject to repeated examination and handling during the past century. With the resurrecting of the original Mutis herbarium we now have available duplicates of these types, ranging from a single additional specimen to as many as perhaps 30 individual specimens obviously all from the same plant.

Moreover, many of the species represented have never been re-collected, and our knowledge of them has been confined to these single examples in the Linnæan and Humboldt herbaria. This is not strange, when one considers that never has so intensive a study been

given to the flora of the Bogota and Mariquita regions as that of the First Royal Botanical Expedition.

For the same reason, the Mutis herbarium also contains many plants never before known to science. Our studies of the collection have not progressed sufficiently far to permit any estimate of the number of such undescribed species, but it is interesting to note that to date 86 new species have been found among the Piperaceæ, 6 in the Rubiaceæ, 9 in Mimosaceæ, 2 each in Caesalpiniaceæ, Monnimiaceæ, and Verbenaceæ, and 1 in Melastomaceæ. There are also the types of the comparatively few species described by Mutis himself and published posthumously.

The study of the herbarium specimens obviously will facilitate the identifying of the thousands of plates prepared under the direction of Mutis. According to a count made at the Botanical Garden in 1882 there are 6,701 drawings and paintings. In many instances there are two drawings and one painting of a single plant, Mutis' intention having been apparently to deposit drawings at both Bogota and Madrid. It is difficult to form an estimate of the number of different species represented; possibly there are as many as 2,500. As already noted, Triana grouped these plates according to families and prepared an index to them. He attempted to assign specific names to only a small proportion of them, however.

The nature of the recent work that has been done on the Mutis herbarium seems worth recording here. We transferred the specimens to fresh white paper and assigned numbers to them, attempting to bring together under one number specimens that appeared to have come from a single individual plant or to have been collected at one time from different plants of the same species, so that these numbers would represent what a "collection number" means to the modern botanist. These numbers run from 1 to 5,591. Where the material was sufficiently ample for division, a set of duplicates was put aside for the United States National Herbarium. The work of identifying these is now going forward, specialists at other institutions generously cooperating with members of the staff of the National Museum. Reports are being made to the Madrid Botanical Garden, and one complete set of the Mutis collection is there being arranged according to family, genus, and species. Next, efforts will be made to identify the plates by comparison with the named specimens, without doubt a difficult task.

Beyond that stage there are hopes rather than definite plans. An ideal well worth striving for would be the publication of a *Flora of Colombia*, similar to Martius' *Flora Brasiliensis*, illustrated with Mutis' drawings and paintings, with all species known to-day described in full, the descriptions accompanied by notes as to the uses and local names of the plants. Thus would be fulfilled Mutis' eighteenth century dream.



# CITY GOVERNMENT IN SPANISH AMERICAN CAPITALS

By JOSÉ TERCERO

*Pan American Union Staff*

TO gain a perspective on the transformations that have taken place during the course of the years both in the juridical theory and in the administrative structure of city government in some of the capital cities of Spanish America, it is necessary to trace briefly the genesis of the local bodies or units of authority established in the Spanish colonies, particularly in their relation to Roman law.

During the first period of Roman expansion, the conquerors generally reduced to slavery the peoples they vanquished. However, if the conquerors had not met with great resistance and the people were willing to submit to the new order, the inhabitants were allowed to keep part of their property and to enjoy a few rights, although their independence was completely abolished.

At a later period the Romans began to grant the dwellers of conquered cities and townships certain citizenship rights, first the *jus sufragii* (the right to vote), then the *jus connubium* (the right to enter into a lawful marriage as distinguished from the inferior marriage of "concubinage"), until finally they were granted all the rights enjoyed by Roman citizens.

During the Empire, particularly while the Julian law of the municipalities was in effect, there existed localities, called *fora* and *conciliabula*, subsequently made independent cities with the name of *fora*, which had the right of self-administration. Their inhabitants were granted citizenship rights in the Empire, in return for which they were obliged to contribute to the income (*munera*) of the State and to render military service. Hence the names *municipes* and *municipia* given to the inhabitants and to the cities, respectively. Thus, the Roman municipalities were characterized by the Roman citizenship of their inhabitants and by their local administrative autonomy in such matters as internal government, police powers, and local courts of justice. The functions of government were exercised by a council, a senate, and various individual magistrates, all elected every year; all laws and regulations, too, were locally enacted and enforced, providing they were not opposed to the laws and decrees of the people and senate of Rome.

This admirable system flourished until toward the end of the Empire, when the centralization effected under Constantine slowly ab-

sorbed most of the powers and prerogatives of the municipalities throughout the Empire, with the exception of those in one of its Provinces, Iberia (Spain, Portugal, and southwestern France), where the institution preserved and developed its autonomous character during the Visigothic invasion and the Arabic domination, and definitely persisted in medieval and united Spain.

The town council or *ayuntamiento*, as the institution became known in later years in Spain, was transplanted by the mother country to her colonies in the New World where the founding of new cities was marked by the institution of *cabildos* (municipal councils) which, if they did not have the splendor of the *ayuntamientos* in Spain or the healthy freedom of the more or less autonomous towns in New England, were nevertheless the only colonial institutions in which representatives of the people took direct part, appointing lesser judges, organizing local police, stimulating city growth, and guarding the general welfare, often opposing their own force and authority against despotic governors, grandees, or agents of the Crown whenever these attempted to violate their autonomy or to encroach upon their ancient prerogatives.

Many students of this little-known phase of the Spanish colonies agree that the *cabildos* were without doubt the best feature of the system implanted by the mother country. With the exception of the *cabildos* in the capital cities of the various colonies, subject naturally to the influence of the Crown through viceroys, *adelantados*, inquisitors, etc., the *cabildos* functioned with complete freedom and independence and represented a very notable exception to the general policy adopted and pursued by Spain in the colonies. The pronounced civic consciousness to be found at the present time in many Latin American cities can be easily explained when we consider that they are the proud possessors of a heritage of tradition dating as far back as the beginning of the sixteenth century. They were the nuclei of learning and culture, becoming later centers of revolutionary activity when the struggle for independence began throughout the Spanish Empire in America. The task of the young nations in the trying period of transition would have been much more difficult had it not been for the strong and well-defined character of the *cabildos*. The long and difficult years that followed independence would have been even more chaotic but for them, since they were the natural point around which the organization of the local, provincial, and national government of the new nations began to crystallize.

In the various constitutions adopted at that time the peculiar features of the organization of the *cabildos* were preserved to a very great degree. In some countries where the aim of political thought was a central republic, the *cabildos* began to lose their autonomy in some

measure when the offices in the *cabildos* became appointive instead of elective, as had also happened in some cases through various abuses. In other countries the adoption of the federal form of government along the lines of local self-determination enhanced their representative character. Their development down to the present has varied according to conditions peculiar to the different nations. In one important point the *cabildos* or *ayuntamientos* differ from city and town government in the United States, in that they do not have individual charters but function according to a uniform pattern which sets forth their prerogatives, duties, and method of administration. The nature and extent of local ordinances and regulations remain, however, a matter of local decision, always provided that they do not conflict with the laws of the nation, or with the indispensable continuity of the three fields of public interest, namely, the local, the provincial or state, and the national. Another interesting feature of present-day municipalities in some of the Latin American nations is the fact that foreigners take an active part in the conduct of local affairs, provided they fulfill certain requisites established by law. This is merely the operation in these municipalities of the old Roman theory that residence is as strong a factor in the life of communities as citizenship, particularly in the administrative aspects of local affairs.

From the day of their emancipation, two all-important factors have been working in some nations which tend to modify local government in the national capitals. The first is of a constitutional nature and arises from the seeming incompatibility in the existence of national authorities and a wholly independent and totally autonomous local government within the confines of the same city. The origin of the theory responsible for this situation lies, of course, in the Constitution of the United States, after which the constitutions of the Latin American nations, as is well known, were modeled to a very considerable degree. Some constitutions followed very closely the theory that the conduct of local government in the national capital belongs to Congress and the national executive, in their respective capacities, and that there should be no coexisting legislative or executive city authorities. Thus we find city governments in some capitals that have changed from an elective *cabildo* to a wholly appointive body, as in Managua. A variation of this theory consists in the preservation of an administrative corporate body or council, elected by the people, but presided over by an executive authority (mayor) appointed by the national executive, to avoid, as a French President once put it, having the president of the nation a mere guest of the executive of the capital. In some countries, notably in Mexico until 1929, the autonomous character of the old *cabildo* was preserved in its entirety in the national capital, both the executive and legislative powers being elected by the people. The fundamental



difference, however, to be found between the capital of the United States and the other capitals of the American Republic lies in the status of the citizens, who, in the latter, have not been deprived of the exercise of their electoral rights as regards national government. In this point we find again the Roman theory of the municipality, whose residents were citizens of the Empire. It may be noted that a decided movement toward the restoration of full citizenship rights to the inhabitants of the District of Columbia has been especially apparent in later years, at least on the part of citizens of the District.

The second factor lies in the intricate and complex problem created by the unavoidable growth of modern cities and the resultant congestion of population, encroachment upon neighboring cities, and the fusion of all these communities and the capital into one great unit or metropolitan district. The same problem has been felt the world over, particularly in the large cities of the United States, and has given rise to a new science of government, which redefines many of the old juridical concepts and seeks to free them of legalistic subtleties in order to cope more efficiently with the problems confronting the modern city.

This aspect of the question, naturally, presented itself earliest and most sharply in the larger Spanish American cities, notably Buenos Aires, Mexico City, and Habana, the national capitals of Argentina, Mexico, and Cuba, respectively. The forms of city government existing at present in those and in some of the other capitals represent individual solutions worked out by these cities to the problems created by the action of the two factors, one political, the other physical, discussed above. It would be impossible within the limitations of length and scope of this article to enter into a detailed analysis of these forms of municipal government. The brief descriptions offered, together with the short bibliography inserted at the end of these pages, may serve as the starting point for any one desirous of making a more extended study of the matter.

Buenos Aires, the capital of Argentina (population, 11,660,000), was founded in 1580; its present population is 3,109,946.

The colonial *cabildo* form of city government continued after the country had gained its independence until 1820, when a "provincial" government was established in Buenos Aires. Subsequently, a series of changes and restorations occurred, during which Buenos Aires experienced municipal government; government by a commission appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate (similar to that of the District of Columbia); again a municipal government elected by a restricted electorate; and finally the present form of elective-appointive government, which has been functioning since 1918, and which consists of a deliberating council (*concejo deliberante*) of 30



members elected by the people, and an executive officer (*intendente*) appointed by the President of the Republic.

The principle of constitutional order referred to above is clearly reflected in the appointment of the *intendente* by the President of the Republic with the approval of the Senate.

The *intendente* is in reality the person to whom the President delegates his functions as executive of the seat of the National Government. His powers include: Administrative authority over the



THE MUNICIPALIDAD  
(CITY HALL), BUENOS  
AIRES

In this building at the western end of the Plaza de Mayo are housed the administrative offices of the city government.

machinery of municipal government; police power over public services, public order, and matters of public domain; financial authority for the disbursement of public funds and the negotiation of loans and contracts; quasi-legislative authority for the issuance of internal, police, and general regulations; and executive authority for the promulgation, sanction, and execution of ordinances and regulations, the collection of taxes, and other functions of a similar nature.

The deliberating council is what may be called a corporate controller of the *intendente*. The relationship between the two branches

of the city government is regulated by a system of checks and balances reminiscent of those found in the Constitution of the United States to regulate the functions of the three Federal branches. The council has power of initiative in all matters pertaining to the affairs of the city, although legislation is enacted by Congress. Its financial power is threefold—preparation of the city budget, determination of sources of revenue and amount and form of taxation, and negotiation, directly or through the medium of the intendente, of loans and contracts for services. Under its quasi-legislative authority, the council enacts ordinances and other binding decisions. Finally, by virtue of its administrative powers, the council approves or rejects appointments of the intendente, and appoints special commissions of investigation of city affairs.

The intendente may veto the ordinances and decisions of the council, and the council in turn may ask the President, showing cause for its request, to remove the intendente and make a new appointment. The council, likewise, examines, approves, or rejects the accounts of the intendente. When the office of the intendente is vacant, the chairman of the council takes over his duties until the President designates and the Senate approves a new appointee.

Prior to 1917 the council was chosen by a restricted electorate (taxpayers and other specified voters), but at present it is elected by universal suffrage, following the system of proportional representation or minority representation. The total number of registered voters is divided by 30 (the number of councilmen), and the result is the electoral quotient needed to elect one councilman. After the election each political party is represented by as many councilmen as electoral quotients polled. To illustrate: Total registered vote, 3,000,000. Divided by 30, the electoral quotient is 10,000 votes. Party "A" polls 120,000 votes, or 12 electoral quotients, therefore elects 12 councilmen. Party "B" polls 60,000 votes and elects 6 councilmen. And so on, down to Party "X", which polls 10,000 and is represented by one councilman. Thus, the council is truly representative of all parties. The system is an important factor in keeping alive the interests of the voters and in doing away with the "futility complex" so generally found among voters of minority parties who stay away from the polls rather than throw away their votes to swell the totals of candidates they would not normally support. Foreigners in Buenos Aires, if fulfilling certain requisites of residence, may vote and be elected like ordinary citizens.

Mexico City, with a population of 1,229,576, is the capital of a nation of 16,527,776 inhabitants. Founded in 1524, thrice an imperial capital, seat of the viceregal court of New Spain, capital of a free nation, Mexico City has had a colorful and picturesque life. And yet, in spite of all these changes the *cabildo* form of government

persisted for centuries practically unchanged until 1928, when a radical transformation took place, almost overnight, but without disorganization or administrative chaos.

At the end of 1928 we find Mexico City, the capital of the nation and of the Federal District, which comprises 17 wholly autonomous and independent municipalities, a large, populous municipality in its own right, with three separate governmental bodies—the Federal, the District, and the *Ayuntamiento* (municipal government). The problem confronting the legislator was decidedly physical, rather than constitutional. The city had almost doubled its population in a decade; it had overflowed its limits and encroached upon the neighboring municipalities. There was a maze of jurisdictional conflicts, triplication of taxes, a tangled network of public services, sanitation and food regulations, municipal ordinances, and traffic rules.

The evil effects of this situation on the administration of the interests of more than a million souls was self-evident.

In tackling the urban and the constitutional problems, the Federal Congress in a bold move suppressed the municipalities, did away with the district government, and merged the component parts of the Federal District into a single unit, intrusting its administration to the Federal Executive and the Federal Congress. The result was a totally new form of city government of striking simplicity and compactness. A new executive establishment was created, akin to a government department, under the name of Department of the Federal District. Its head, with the title of Chief, is appointed by the President of the Republic. The 17 municipalities became *delegaciones*, or component divisions of the Central Department. The Chief, with the approval of the President, appoints and removes the heads of each *delegación*. A system of appointment, similar to the civil service in the United States, provides for competitive examinations for all positions. Since Congress is the legislative body for the District, whose inhabitants exercise full electoral rights, the problem of "taxation without representation" no longer exists. But in the desire to manage the district's affairs in the best possible manner, the legislators devised a new way of giving its inhabitants participation in the conduct of the district government by creating advisory councils made up of representatives of all the interests of the city. To this effect organizations in the different spheres of activity are given the right of designating the membership of the councils. Thus, the chambers of commerce, the associations of small merchants who are not members of the chambers, the chambers of industry, the associations of small industrialists, the associations of real estate owners, the associations of tenants or rent payers, the associations of farmers and agriculturists, the professional associations of lawyers, doctors, engineers, etc., the associations of public



and private employees, the labor organizations, and women's interests through the Association of Mothers, designate from among their own members the persons who are to represent them in the councils. All foreign interests, are of course, given representation through their respective organizations. It will be apparent even to the casual observer that this system, besides giving organized public opinion a voice in city affairs, promotes a spirit of association and of civic and group consciousness. The law does not limit the number of associations that may participate in the advisory council; it merely establishes as a fair measure of the importance and permanency of the group a minimum of 100 members and a year of continued chartered existence.



PALACIO DEL AYUNTAMIENTO (CITY HALL), MEXICO CITY

For nearly four centuries this site has been the seat of the municipal government. The present structure dates from 1720-1724 with the exception of the third story and certain colonial decorations, which were added in 1909.

The councils propose amendments and reforms to existing legislation and administrative regulations, or suggest new legislation; study and indorse or reject the annual budget prepared by the department; inspect all public services; and examine the accounts rendered annually by the department.

Since the establishment of the new form of city government, the progress achieved has been extraordinarily rapid and the expectations of the legislators have been more than surpassed. The spirit of cooperation that has characterized the relations between the department and the people through their counselors, up to the present time, seems to guarantee an orderly advance in efficient city government. At the end of 1928 the cost of government under the old system represented an expenditure of more than 15,000,000 pesos, and the



expenditure for public services amounted to over 17,000,000 pesos. Under the administration of the new department, approximate figures for the year 1930 were: Cost of government, 11,000,000 pesos, a saving of almost 25 per cent; expenditure for all public services, 25,000,000 pesos, an increase of over 50 per cent. It may be noted in this connection that many taxes were abolished and that the police force was completely reorganized and enlarged.

Lack of space does not permit a detailed description of the city governments of the other Spanish American capitals. However, those that have not been mentioned in detail can be grouped as follows:

*Government consisting of an elective council and an appointed intendente (mayor), similar in form to the "Buenos Aires system":* Asuncion, Paraguay; Bogota, Colombia; Caracas, Venezuela; Guatemala, Guatemala; La Paz, Bolivia; Panama, Panama; San Jose, Costa Rica; San Salvador, El Salvador; and Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.

*A central or national district created by merging neighboring municipalities:* Habana, Cuba, government vested in the President and the Congress; Managua, Nicaragua, three commissioners appointed by the President (District of Columbia system).

*Autonomous elective government:* Lima, Peru; Montevideo, Uruguay. Following the unique corporate system of government that is a feature of constitutional law in Uruguay, Montevideo is managed by a council elected by the people according to the system of proportional representation or electoral quotient. There is no separate executive authority.

In various countries where the urban problem is becoming more acute, substantial changes are being contemplated at present. In some of the larger capitals, the "municipalization" or city ownership and management of some public services, so successfully applied in many cities throughout the world, is receiving serious consideration.

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# EL SALVADOR

By LILLY DE JONGH OSBORNE

THE first land in America on which Columbus set foot was the island of Guanahani, belonging to the group of the Bahamas, or Lacaya Islands. It was immediately named "San Salvador" by the Spanish discoverers. This San Salvador is not to be confused with San Salvador, the capital of the Republic of El Salvador, situated on the Pacific coast of Central America, a country that covers 13,176 square miles and has 1,460,000 inhabitants, thus making it one of the most densely populated countries in the world.

In common with its four sister Republics of Central America, it has a brilliant prehistoric background, and two centuries and a half of Spanish colonial history, besides a century of independent life. Recently it has made modern progress in every sense of the word, standing on its own small, sturdy legs, and is quite capable of holding its place as an independent Republic amongst the civilized nations of to-day.

Other points of contact with the rest of Central America are the Spanish language, although this is not the only one spoken in the country. Almost everyone in the upper classes speaks English, and a great many at least one or more other languages, with perhaps a preference for French. Catholicism is the principal religion throughout the country, but various Protestant denominations have churches in El Salvador and are at liberty to practice their beliefs. Many people of other denominations live peacefully in the country and do as they wish about their ideas.

After the above has been summed up, all similarity between the five republics ceases, each having an individuality quite its own. The difference results from the fact that not all were populated by the same Indian races, and the Spanish conquerors of the various parts of Central America were not always of the same degree of culture and, moreover, came from different parts of Spain. Naturally, the climate and soil are a factor in this situation. Furthermore, El Salvador has been the highway of migrations from the north and south and although few remained long on this earthquake-shaken ground, all left their imprint on this country.

## HISTORY

The remains of the archaic civilization are plentiful. Crudely made figurines, vessels, and all sorts of primitive pottery are frequently

unearthed; they bear a close affinity with those of this period found in Guatemala and Mexico.

The great Maya race also paused briefly in this country, although not at its greatest intellectual and artistic peak, but sometime before and just after the Old Empire period at Copan, just over the border in Honduras. Well-defined pottery of Maya types is to be found all over the republic, beautiful jars and bowls in low and high relief—painted ware of a high artistic value. The ruins belonging to the Maya culture are very simple, compared to others in Guatemala and Honduras; those around and in Lake Güija and in Chalchuapa are of this period of Indian history.

The Toltecs, coming from Mexico, settled here many centuries before the Spanish invasion. Another more recent immigration is mentioned in history: King Ahuitzol of Mexico sent emissaries in the year 1486 to spy out the lay of the land so as to send an army later on. These men came disguised as merchants and settled in the country. The Mexican followers who came in the train of Alvarado's army found to their surprise Indians who could speak their own language living in Cuscatlan. Most of the Cuscatlan, or Salvadorean, Indians are descendants of the Pipil or Nahuatl Indians. They are quite different from the descendants of the Maya Indians in Guatemala and the Lencas and Chontales, who populated a large extent of territory to the south, now included in the Republic of El Salvador, which formed part of the Chaparrestique nation.

The Quelepa ruins, situated in the present Department of San Miguel, belonged to the Lenca Indians. Those near San Salvador, called Sihuatán, belonged to the Nahuatl; they bear a close similarity to those in Mexico, which are on a much larger scale but have the same sort of ball court and pyramids so characteristic of this type of building. Intriguing boulders have been found in many places in Salvador, their surfaces covered with strange pictographs; what people engraved them? What they are supposed to represent and how old they are still are unsolved puzzles. Ruins and artifacts have been unearthed from under many feet of ashes and thick lava flows, often centuries old, bearing mute testimony to the tragedy which befell the people to whom they belonged.

In 1524 Don Pedro de Alvarado, with Spanish followers and Indian allies, arrived to conquer Cuscatlan. The Indians treated the Spaniards with courtesy, but the latter responded with the usual maltreatment; this peaceful state, therefore, lasted only a short time. The Indians who could hide in the hills did so, while the captured ones were branded and taken as slaves in chain gangs to Guatemala.

A second attempt was made by Alvarado in 1525, which proved more successful. The first Spanish town was then founded, with Diego de Holguín as its first mayor, although it was not until 1528



that it was in full running order and functioning properly. The Spaniards were not satisfied with its site, in what was called "La Bermuda," and soon decided to move their town to the "Valley of the Hammocks" (*Valle de las Hamacas*), so-called because of the frequent earthquakes felt there. This is the site on which the present city of San Salvador is built. In the year 1545 King Charles V granted the town by royal decree the privilege of being called *City*—*Ciudad de San Salvador*.

The *conquistadores* who came from Guatemala with Pedro de Alvarado were not the first white people to enter what is now the territory of El Salvador. Spaniards led by Gil Gonzales Dávila came



Photograph by Anibal Salazar

#### SAN MIGUEL VOLCANO

At the foot of this volcano a field of henequen, or sisal, is cultivated on the site of a pre-Columbian fortification.

from the south in 1522, accompanied by Andrés Niño, who discovered the Bay of Fonseca. Martín Estet, an agent of that very unpleasant man Pedrarias Dávila, also came from this direction and tried his best, but with no success, to capture San Salvador very early in its history.

During the whole of the Spanish colonial administration, which lasted until 1821, the two Provinces of San Salvador and Sonsonate were ruled from the capital of Guatemala, where the Captain General of the Captaincy of Guatemala had his headquarters. The early colonial régime was mainly distinguished for its very active religious propaganda among the Indians; many churches and convents were



built. All efforts were directed toward getting treasure in the name of the king and for personal gain. Lands were occupied by the settlers regardless of their Indian owners, who were either taken over to work as slaves on their own lands or sent as such elsewhere. An active commerce was maintained with the mother country; the Province of San Salvador, situated as it was on the highway which led down to Nicaraguan and Costa Rican ports, where the Spanish galleons arrived every so often with merchandise from the mother country, was the scene of much hustling and bustling, either by southward-bound traders or those coming north with new wares.

The second half of the colonial régime is quite another story. Social life in the Spanish towns was very pleasant; many solid houses with good furniture and with beautiful and artistic objects provided comfortable homes for the cultured classes. There were good schools, although the majority of the well-to-do class sent their children to Guatemala to be educated at preparatory schools and at the University of San Carlos Borromeo. Soon San Salvador grew into a pleasant city having a gay social life and many political activities, with a class of men who were developing independent thoughts from those held by the officials sent out from Spain.

Amongst these was Padre José Matías Delgado,<sup>1</sup> who was educated in the University of Guatemala. He was the first to promulgate the idea of independence from Spain in 1811. This first effort was not successful, and independence was not proclaimed until that memorable 15th of September, 1821, on which San Salvador, together with the other Provinces in Central America, separated for all time from the mother country. Padre Delgado was one of the principal leaders in preventing San Salvador from adhering to the so-called *Plan de Iguala*, according to which Iturbide wanted to have the Central American countries annexed to Mexico.

Padre Delgado is buried in the church of El Rosario in San Salvador City, and in the square in front of this church a bronze monument commemorates the deeds of this churchly knight. An old tower outside the church of La Merced in the same city is all that is left of the place from which the bells rang out the first cry of independence from Spain in 1811.

Another great Salvadorean was Padre Simeón Cañas, who also attended the famous Constitutional Assembly in Guatemala in 1823, and through his endeavors succeeded in getting slavery abolished in Central America. Another whose name is worthy of mention is General José Arce who, as commander in chief of Salvadorean forces, defended his country against those sent from Mexico by Iturbide. He was exiled for a time in the United States, then recalled to his country to be made the first President of the Federal States of Central

<sup>1</sup> See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, November, 1932.

America. Not being very successful because of factional strife, he resigned and then was exiled to Mexico.

The *Provincias Unidas de Centro América* after their independence passed through many vicissitudes with social and political problems of one sort and another; reorganization in their new state presented many difficulties. El Salvador did not have a constitution until 1841; by a decree in 1859 it finally became the Independent and Free Republic of El Salvador (*República Libre, Soberana e Independiente de El Salvador*).



Courtesy of R. W. Hebard & Co.

#### THE CATHEDRAL IN SAN SALVADOR

The cathedral, fronting on the Plaza Bolívar, is a modern structure, having been commenced in 1881 and consecrated seven years later.

A Central American Union has been discussed in the Five Sister Republics ever since 1821; many citizens have worked for it in one way or another during the last century, but without lasting success. Tentative unions of some of the countries have been made, like those in 1885 and in 1921.

During colonial and republican régimes the Indians have had a hard time. The mortality rate has been very high because of forced labor, disastrous battles fought with the conquerors, and fatal diseases brought in by the white men. The Indians soon became a negligible factor, so much so that now there is only 7 per cent of the entire population who are true Indians.

To sum up the foregoing: The present Republic of El Salvador consists of what in pre-Columbian times was the territory belonging to Cuscatlan and Chaparrestique, and what in colonial times was the Province of San Salvador and that of Sonsonate, and at the beginning of the era of Independence was the State of El Salvador in the Federation of Central American States.

#### MODERN EL SALVADOR

Life in the whole republic centers around the coffee crop; when the price of coffee is high, then the whole atmosphere is one of good humor and a gay spirit prevails; but when it is low, then it is quite another story—everybody goes about his business with a long face. Large coffee fincas dot the whole country. The best coffee comes from those situated on the slopes of high mountains in a cool climate. Here the coffee pickers have their baskets strapped to their bodies and are held firmly by ropes, so that the coffee on these steep hill-sides may be picked with safety. The coffee fincas are beautiful places whose large airy houses have lovely gardens and all the modern comforts, including swimming pools. Lucky estate owners live on their fincas for the months when the crop is being picked and made ready for export (November to March). After the crop is over, when prices are good for this staple in the foreign market they all take a trip either to Europe or to the United States, preferably to Europe, where they enjoy life in the gay capitals, and return in time for the next crop, laden with Parisian clothes, leaving their children at English or French schools. Salvadoreans of the better classes send their children away to finish their schooling in two or more countries. This makes Salvadorean society sound very cosmopolitan, many of the youths who return from abroad continuing to speak amongst themselves the language in which they were educated.

Almost anything will grow in a country which has such varied altitudes and so many different climates, but coffee ranks first amongst the crops. Henequen has been produced on a large scale near San Miguel; large tracts of land are planted to sugarcane near Sonsonate, where there are a number of refineries and the quality of the sugar is very good. Many heads of cattle graze on large haciendas; excellent for this purpose are the lands around Lake Güija, where the cattle grow fat on the long luscious grass growing on the low shores of this beautiful sheet of water. Many acres of land are planted yearly to corn, a very necessary crop, since it forms the most important item in the daily menu of the people; tortillas, made out of corn, *frijoles* (black beans), and coffee will keep them happy. Rice is also cultivated on flat bottom lands and is of a high quality.

Quantities of the so-called *Bálsamo del Perú* are exported yearly. It is a thorn in the side of the Salvadorean nation that its splendid





INDIAN TYPES OF EL SALVADOR

Upper: A group of coffee pickers on a large plantation near Santa Ana. Coffee is the chief agricultural product of the Republic. Right: A Panchimalco Indian with a basket of pineapples for market.



Photographs by Anibal Salazar

balsam is known all over the world by the above name, when in reality it is nothing more or less than *Bálsamo de El Salvador*. It is grown on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, between La Libertad and Acajutla, known as *Costa del Bálsamo*. The trees, which grow to a large size, must be at least 25 years old before they are tapped. The balsam is then cooked in large vessels and made ready for exportation in the same region where it is grown. The mistaken name comes supposedly from the time of the arrival of the *conquistadores*, who found the Indians occupied in boiling this balsam in large earthenware vessels. The Indians, when asked what it was, said "*Piru*." (*Piru* in Indian means the earthenware pot.) The Spaniards, who



were then quite obsessed with the news of the great treasures found in Peru, immediately converted this *Piru* into *Peru*, whence they supposed the natives had originally brought the balsam, and this name has stuck to it for all time. This balsam is a splendid medicinal product, especially the kind called *bálsamo negro* (black balsam).

In Spanish colonial times the cochineal insect and indigo crop were sources of wealth, but neither of these two is now produced.

Tropical fruits of all kinds grow well—mangoes, papayas, citrus fruits of all kinds, huge tomatoes, pineapples, and avocados, just to mention a few of the many which flourish all over the country.

Frequent earthquakes have destroyed large tracts of cultivated land; lava flows have obliterated acres of coffee trees. This can well be appreciated on the sides of the San Salvador volcano, near the city, as well as on the side of Izalco, called the "Beacon of the Pacific," because every few minutes it throws huge burning stones and lets them drop down its sides with a deafening roar, shaking the hamlets situated on its slopes. It is really one of the most soul-satisfying volcanoes I have ever seen, for it plays true to form and will roar and perform any time in the most spectacular manner, the way all good volcanoes are supposed to do in everybody's imagination. This volcano has been formed within the memory of the last generation, starting from a small hole in the ground and suddenly growing to its present huge proportion. Lava flows are a weird sight, their black glassy surfaces destitute of vegetation for at least a hundred years after their appearance; vast black rocks cover what has been a flourishing green field and an active village. This can best be appreciated near the San Miguel volcano, where lava flows of different epochs clearly show the periods of different stages of vegetation.

A few factories produce things used in the country, but most of the necessary manufactured articles are imported. Shoes, saddles, ropes, hammocks, saddlebags, palm-leaf hats, clay jars and other household utensils are the principal manufactured goods; also a negligible amount of textiles and some silk scarfs woven on hand looms, which have been quite successful with the tourist trade, because of their beautifully blended colors and everlasting qualities. All the standard brands of groceries, textiles, and hardware from Europe and the United States can be bought in the stores, but the prices are high, even compared to those in other Latin American countries, because of the fact that the duties are higher. The duties go to the service of the loan made during the régime of Dr. Alfonso Quiñones, for sanitation and paving the streets of San Salvador with asphalt.

#### SAN SALVADOR

Because of its well-paved streets this city presents a clean and tidy appearance; it has many beautiful houses, despite the fact that it has many times been destroyed, the last by the heavy earthquakes of

1917. It is a marvel that anybody has had the courage to reconstruct at all. Most of the better houses are built of concrete or wood to withstand earthquakes. None of the churches have been rebuilt with any of the beauty with which they were built in Spanish colonial times. The frequent destruction is also to blame for the disappearance of the lovely antique furniture and artistic things which belong to that period. The houses are furnished in quite modern style, although the majority of them are still built on the old patio style of architecture, which is so attractive for the tropical or semitropical climate of these Central American countries. Otherwise they are usually of the "chalet" type, surrounded with beautiful gardens



THE NATIONAL PALACE, SAN SALVADOR

In this fine building are housed the national legislature as well as the offices of the Government departments.

containing a wealth of flowers—masses of scarlet bougainvillea, bright hibiscus, poinsettia trees 20 feet high, in blossom the greater part of the year, gardenias on huge trees, gladioli, tuberoses, and hundreds of others which scent the heavy midday atmosphere of the city.

Several open squares in the center of town, the Palace building with its imposing façade, the National Theater, four banking institutions housed in large buildings, many shops with good window displays, two very modern hotels with all comforts, a general hospital, a very good children's hospital donated by a wealthy United States citizen, several institutions for the sick, maimed, and incurable, all combine to make San Salvador an up-to-date city.

Last but not least, I want to mention the clubs which are a center for the social life of the city. The International Club, housed in a very fine building, has a long list of foreigners amongst its members; the Casino, built after the style of the Alhambra, is the center of the activities of Salvadorean men; the Country Club is situated in a wonderful location, a few miles from the city on a well-paved road. Its clubhouse is of concrete with large terraces from which a lovely view can be obtained of the distant mountain ranges of El Salvador and even of distant Honduras. This club has the best golf course in Central America, as well as tennis courts and a basket-ball court.



Photograph by Anibal Salazar

#### ROSALES HOSPITAL, SAN SALVADOR

The construction of this hospital in 1902 was made possible by a bequest of the Salvadorean philanthropist José Rosales. With facilities for 700 patients, the institution ranks as one of the best in Central America.

A pleasant crowd congregates in the afternoons on the veranda to sip a cup of tea or perhaps take a nip of something a wee bit stronger.

The International Club has a branch at La Libertad on the coast, and during the dry season (November to May) many people spend their Sundays down there. The Casino is building a branch at Lake Ilopango, that lovely sheet of water within a short drive of the city where people go to swim on every holiday; regattas and swimming contests frequently take place there. The Salvadorean young people are good athletes and go in for sports of all kinds the whole year round. Even in the rainy season this sun-bathed country always provides some days when it is possible to go to the country and enjoy the cool,



green vegetation of the season, and the mornings are always dry and clear.

At the edge of the city is the Campo de Marte, a large tract of land converted into an athletic field, with a grandstand, tennis courts, fields for football, baseball, and basket ball, and a good racing course. At almost all hours and every day of the year the Campo de Marte is popular. As early as 5 in the morning games of tennis and volley ball are in progress, and pedestrians walk many times around the race track in the cool of the morning. A little later nursemaids with their young charges appear and take possession until the hot sun drives them home about 11 o'clock; then the Campo sleeps for a couple of hours, with only the drone of the *mozos* who look after it. About 3 o'clock football players appear; about 5 automobiles begin to be driven around the circle with good-looking girls and boys out for an airing. About 6 these same girls will step out of their cars for a few minutes' walk, and are joined by other eligible young men who have wandered casually to the Campo. On moonlight nights groups of youngsters with guitars and banjos come to sit under the shade of the giant *Flor de Fuego* (flamboyant) trees. Whether around the Campo de Marte or along any of the well-paved roads, the proportion of expensive cars is large. No Salvadorean will walk even for a few blocks; that is why one hardly ever sees society on the streets. It is only the masses who can not afford cars and those *Cheles* (in other countries called *Gringos*), i. e., foreigners, who walk in the city of San Salvador.

#### FIESTAS

A fiesta is not what, in the true meaning of the word, "feast" is to the Saxon mind. Fiestas, when employees of all kinds and the banks take a day off, dot the year like a well-developed case of smallpox. Both religious and Government fiestas are specified in the yearly Salvadorean calendar, but these are negligible compared with the number of others added to them. A fiesta has a flavor very much its own; it means much merrymaking to the tune of gay music, new clothes, and drink of the stronger kind. If the fiesta is a social affair, the aristocratic champagne flows freely, the dresses are models from the most famous Paris couturiers, and the music is furnished by the best marimba orchestra available, but these are not alone—oh, dear, no! The marimba has as its companion a regular jazz band with all sorts of queer contraptions to produce properly the weird noise nowadays called dance music. If the fiesta, however, is of the humbler variety, the marimba music is unadorned, the "white-eye" undiluted as a fortifying drink, and the clothes many times removed from the models from the Rue de la Paix, but the fiesta, nevertheless, is gay and merry.



The really big fiesta days are those during Holy Week and those which occur in August. Holy Week is dedicated to religious observances which commence during Lent and culminate on Easter Sunday. On the Saturday before this day a strange performance takes place; young men with paper butterflies go around the streets and parks trying to fasten them on to the clothes of the young girls. The meaning of this has never been made clear to me. On July 24 the first call to the Fiestas Agostinas is announced by a float patronized by the Post Office; from then on to August 6, nobody thinks of anything but fiestas and clothes. Decorated floats meander around the



Courtesy of R. W. Hebard & Co.

#### THE NATIONAL THEATER, SAN SALVADOR

This fine edifice replaced an earlier theater which was destroyed by fire in 1910.

streets at unexpected hours; wooden stalls are erected around the Parque Dueñas in which the wealthy and notable sit to watch anything coming that way, such as floats, fireworks at night, parades, and similar distractions. In the afternoons athletic events take place, and horse races attract large crowds in the Campo de Marte (incidentally I may mention here that next year the Central American Olympics are slated to take place in El Salvador). Dancing, much dancing, is what society engages in during the Fiestas Agostinas. The clubs stage one or more formal balls, besides less formal affairs.

The fiesta culminates on the 5th in a great religious holiday. A float, beautifully decorated, on which the image of "El Salvador del

Mundo" (the Savior of the World) is carried, starts from the cathedral and goes around several squares of the city and then back to the same church. Many months ahead of that date penitents seek the privilege of carrying it. The Divine figure is incased in a *granada*, or decorated chalice, which opens as the procession reaches a certain corner of the Parque Dueñas. While this takes place the multitude kneels in reverent prayer; and then once more the procession proceeds on its way, followed by the sick, the maimed, and thousands of others in holiday attire. The litter on which the Holy Figure is placed is very high, in fact the higher the better, for there is a belief current amongst the masses that if the figure should fall, there is sure to be a fall that year of the party in power; or if the figure does not emerge well from the chalice, there will be pestilence and illness in the land. Electric-light wires are cut along the route so that the figure can pass without being lowered, rockets are fired every so often to let the faithful know how the procession progresses, and church bells peal long and loud. On the 6th, the Feast of the Transfiguration, the day is wholly given over to religious services in the churches, and on the morrow the *Fiestas de Agosto* are finally over.

Tradition has it that on August 6 a decisive battle against the Indians was won by Pedro de Alvarado, but none of the authentic histories verify this.

Fiestas are not complete without much noise day and night from firecrackers and rockets. They express the gay spirit of the Latin and Indian races, who can not conceive of a good time without them.

#### OTHER INFORMATION

San Salvador is not the only large city in the Republic. Santa Ana has a much more colonial aspect than the capital; it is an important commercial center, for many of the best coffee fincas are situated near by. Through it runs the highway to the Guatemalan frontier. San Miguel, which celebrated the fourth century of its foundation in 1930, is the largest city in the southern part of the country. It has a thriving commerce and splendid outlet to the sea, through the port of La Unión and its terminal Cutuco, situated on the Bay of Fonseca, only a short distance away. People from San Miguel and Santa Ana belong to some of the oldest families in the country. History states that the Spaniards who came to settle Cuscatlan belonged to the noblest families who had come out from Spain. Whether because of this or not, Salvadoreans are very proud of their family trees. San Vicente, under the shadow of the volcano of the same name, is another large town which was founded by the Spaniards. The towns of importance dotted all over the country are too many to enumerate, but each has its individuality, and a great many are famous for some particularly well-made product: Ilobasco, for its painted pottery; Sonsonate, for

its cream cheeses; Santa Ana, for a special kind of delicious confection made there; San Miguel for its hammocks and ropes; and so on down the list.

#### MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

A well-paved road leads to the port of La Libertad, through which much coffee is exported; it is the favorite port for travelers either bound north or going south to the Panama Canal. Acajutla is smaller and much less active, but still retains part of the traffic which was hers when the only railroad in the country, British-owned, ran from San Salvador to this port. The line also extends to Santa Ana.



THE PORT OF CUTUCO (LA UNIÓN), EL SALVADOR

At El Salvador's chief port, spurs of the International Railways of Central America along the wharves facilitate the handling of cargo.

The port of La Union is joined to the capital by the International Railroads of Central America; this American company has a system running through the Republics of Guatemala and Salvador. It affords El Salvador the realization of its dream of an outlet to the Atlantic Ocean, by connecting San Salvador with Puerto Barrios (Guatemala) situated on Amatique Bay, where steamers ply almost daily to Europe and the United States. From San Salvador to Puerto Barrios it is a pleasant train journey via the junction of Zacapa, where a stop is made for luncheon. The Pan American Airways offer a comfortable voyage on their planes twice a week either north or south bound; their passenger lists are always full. This way of travel is the ideal



for these countries—for those, of course, who like it and wish to reach their destinations in a hurry. It seems too good to be true to get mail from New York in 3 days, when only a few years ago it took letters anywhere from 15 days to 3 weeks to reach their destination in San Salvador by the old route via Panama; so the air route has been hailed with delight by merchants and the public in general.

#### POPULATION

The predominant race of the 1,527,000 inhabitants of El Salvador is what is called the Ladino, the descendant of the old Spanish settlers



Photograph by Anibal Salazar

#### COFFEE WAREHOUSE AT PUERTO BARRIOS, GUATEMALA

Since the linking of El Salvador with the Caribbean coast of Guatemala by the completion of the International Railways of Central America in 1929, this terminal warehouse exclusively for Salvadorean coffee has been maintained at Puerto Barrios.

who intermarried with Indians of various strains, but principally with those of the Nahuatl or Pipil stock. The few remaining true Indians adhere to their old traditions but in a negligent form. The ones called Panchitos, who come from Panchimalco, near the capital, wear a strange adaption of the sixteenth century Spanish grand dame costume; they bring fresh fruit and eggs to market. The Izalco Indians wear a distinctive costume, and are still of rather pure strain. A few Indians near the volcano of San Miguel also keep to their traditions, but of none of these can it be said, as of the Guatemalan Indians, that they adhere strictly to the old ceremonies and traditions inherited from their ancestors.



There are still some people of pure Spanish descent; many, however, have married English, French, Germans, Italians, Americans, and other foreigners. Their descendants will produce a race mixture which in a few years will quite change the strain of the population in this country; this is more noticeable in El Salvador than anywhere else in Central America. Here the reason may again be the fact that El Salvador is situated on the crossroads of Central American traffic.

There is a sharp distinction between the upper strata of people in the city and larger towns and those of the lower classes who work as *mozos* on fincas and haciendas. The negligible middle class has not yet had a chance to make itself felt as a factor to be counted on.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

The Republic is governed by a President, elected for a term of four years. Four ministers, with a number of under-secretaries, attend to the business of the Government. A Constitutional Assembly (Congress), whose members are elected annually by popular vote, makes the laws for the country; it holds its sessions in the palace opposite Parque Bolívar.

The university is good, with a large enrollment in its various schools of medicine, law, engineering, and chemistry.

El Salvador may well be proud of the scientific and literary men of the past and the present: Jorge Lardé, who stood out amongst notable scientists with his studies on volcanoes; Alberto Masferrer, an author and modern thinker known all over Latin America for his writing; Santiago Barberena, one-time director of the statistical office, but better known for his works on the history of El Salvador, astronomy, and the Quiché language; Maestro Gavidia, with his vast knowledge of Central America archæology and history; and Dr. Gustavo Guerrero, president of the League of Nations Assembly 3 years ago. El Salvador has also had and has noted physicians, musicians and students in many other branches who have acquired fame and glory for their country, but it is not within the scope of a short article to mention a long list of names.

The money unit is the *colón*, which in ordinary times is worth 50 cents American money, but in these troublesome times the exchange fluctuates, causing much agitation in the business world from day to day.

It is hard, in an article of this kind, to do justice to a nation where there is so much of interest and which has such splendid prospects for the future. This is an attempt to give an idea of the country in general and of its historical background, important for a proper appreciation by the tourist visiting its hospitable shores.

# COMMERCIAL INTERDEPENDENCE OF THE AMERICAS

By JULIAN G. ZIER

*Assistant Statistician, Pan American Union*

WITH the intention of disclosing the marked degree of commercial interdependence which exists between the American nations to-day, and has existed since the years immediately preceding the World War, an effort has been made to present here a compilation of inter-American commerce of the Latin American Republics, a not too intricate statistical picture, as it were, of the interchange of products between the 20 Latin American Republics themselves, together with their trade with the United States, Canada, and the British, Dutch, and French possessions in America. Because of the fact that there might be a feeling of abnormality associated with figures for the year 1931, the last for which statistics are available, those for the 3-year period 1929 to 1931, inclusive, have been taken into account. These values, compiled from the annual official reports of the National Statistical Offices of the individual Latin American countries and converted, for the sake of uniformity, into United States currency, serve as a basis for the analysis herein given. Surprising as it may seem, with values obviously lower in the last two years, percentages of total vary only slightly from estimates made in former years.

The total trade of the 20 Latin American Republics with the world in 1931 amounted to \$2,955,610,000. Forty-three and eight-tenths per cent of this trade was inter-American, valued at \$1,295,319,000. A comparison of these figures with those of the two preceding years shows \$1,914,169,000, or 47.6 per cent out of a total of \$4,017,703,000 in 1930; and \$2,586,944,000, or 47.9 per cent out of a total of \$5,405,618,000, in 1929, an average percentage for the three years of 46.2.

The first significant division of inter-American commerce might be made, by virtue of its value, to concern that of the Latin American Republics with the United States. This trade for the period of years under discussion registered as follows: 1931, \$911,523,000, or 30.5 per cent of the total; 1930, \$1,386,365,000, or 34.4 per cent; and 1929, \$1,981,401,000, or 36.7 per cent. An average percentage is here shown of 33.8.

In considering an actual figure for the other inter-American trade, i. e., the trade of the 20 Latin American countries with each other and with the rest of the Western Hemisphere (except the United

States) it should be said that such a figure can never be stated exactly, because a considerable portion of the trade between the republics is frontier and receives no statistical, or, at best, imperfect statistical recognition, and because a considerable part of the foreign commerce of the inland countries, i. e., Bolivia and Paraguay, is credited to adjoining nations, through whose ports it must pass, so that the statistics of the former do not show the actual trend of trade. Much care, however, has been exercised in the process of securing the following figures. Inter-American trade in 1931, other than that with the United States, reached an approximate value of \$383,700,000, or 12.8 per cent of the total Latin American trade with the world; in 1930, \$527,800,000, or 13.2 per cent; and in 1929, \$605,500,000, or 11.2 per cent, an average for the three years of 12.4 per cent. Thus, having dealt with the combined imports and exports, we come to the separation of these and some interesting facts relative thereto.

#### IMPORTS

An investigation of the statistics of Latin American imports from the rest of the western world reveals another small proportional fluctuation in inter-American trade; and, when it is remembered that world-wide buying is confined largely to essentials, the fact that this percentage has varied so little is evidence, indeed, of American commercial interdependence. Latin American international imports reached a value of \$1,196,897,000 in 1931, \$1,909,140,000 in 1930, and \$2,451,449,000 in 1929. In these amounts total inter-American imports figured to the extent of \$531,896,000, or 44.3 per cent, in 1931; \$897,576,000, or 47 per cent, in 1930; and \$1,206,984,000, or 49.2 per cent, in 1929, an average percentage for the three years of 46.8.

Obviously the United States is the chief market for Latin American buyers. In 1931 their purchases from the United States were valued at \$369,723,000, or 30.8 per cent of the total imports; in 1930, \$672,692,000, or 35.2 per cent; and in 1929, \$946,991,000, or 38.6 per cent, a yearly average of 34.8 per cent.

Latin American imports from America (exclusive of the United States) approximated \$162,100,000, or 13.5 per cent of the total international imports in 1931; \$224,800,000, or 11.7 per cent, in 1930; and \$259,900,000, or 10.6 per cent, in 1929, with a yearly average percentage of 11.9. It will be observed that, in spite of the decline in value of this trade, the actual percentage share of total imports has been augmented from year to year, by which index it is evident that inter-American buying is holding its own.

The bulk of imports of the Latin American Republics are manufactures ready for consumption. Of commodities not so comprehended,

the chief are lumber, gold, mineral oils, iron and steel construction material, leather, and some unwrought iron, steel, copper, and other metals. The demand for finished manufactures is normally great in all of the republics, and this demand includes practically every line of European or North American manufacture. This naturally follows because none can properly be considered industrial countries, although Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Mexico have some important manufacturing plants. The imports of finished manufactures, of which textiles, machinery, furniture, automobiles, ready-made clothing, tools and hardware, office appliances, leather manufactures, agricultural implements, mining supplies and tools, engines and motors, telephonic, telegraphic, and other electrical apparatus and material, and paper are among the principal ones, are of the same kinds and qualities for all the countries, making some allowance for climatic differences when necessary in the matter of textiles and clothing. In food products there is a greater diversity in imports as between the countries than in any other class of goods. Flour, wheat, corn, staple meats, and dairy products are not imported by Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Chile. The two first-mentioned countries are large exporters. All the other countries import these products, especially wheat and flour. Highly elaborated foods, such as fancy biscuits, and canned and bottled goods, are imported by all the countries.

#### EXPORTS

The inter-American export equilibrium has not been so shaken as many are ready to believe. Prices, to be sure, have been affected in the Americas the same as in every other part of the world. If prevailing prices in foreign markets for Latin American raw materials had even approximated normal levels in 1931, the volume of Latin American exports would have brought a substantial increase in the wealth of the countries. Rich in raw materials and food products produced in the South, and progressive in perfection of manufacture in the North, all of America may look to a continued interchange of exports complementary to its interdependence.

Latin American exports to the world were represented in values as follows: \$1,758,713,000 in 1931, \$2,108,563,000 in 1930, and \$2,954,169,000 in 1929. Of these amounts inter-American exports aggregated \$763,423,000, or 43.4 per cent, in 1931; \$1,016,593,000, or 48.2 per cent, in 1930; and \$1,379,960,000, or 46.7 per cent, in 1929, averaging yearly 46 per cent.

The geographical division of export trade shows the United States participating in 1931 to the value of \$541,800,000, or 30.8 per cent of total Latin American exports; in 1930 to the value of \$713,673,000, or 33.8 per cent; and in 1929 to the value of \$1,034,410,000, or 35 per cent, averaging a percentage share for the three years of 33.2.



The other inter-American portion of Latin American exports, i. e., exports to all the countries and possessions on this side of the Atlantic, except the United States, during the period 1929 to 1931, inclusive, reached an approximate value of \$221,600,000, or 12.6 per cent of total Latin American exports in 1931; \$302,900,000, or 14.3 per cent, in 1930; and \$345,500,000, or 11.6 per cent, in 1929, giving an average percentage for the three years of 12.8.

Exports from Latin America are almost entirely raw materials for manufacturing purposes and primary foodstuffs, but there are broad regional differences in production, although its imports are, as has been said, everywhere similar in nature. The products of the different countries vary in a marked degree, principally because of climate, rainfall, soil conditions, and mineral wealth. An insight into the character and nature of these exports is best obtained from the following particularization by countries:

*Mexico.*—Primarily, products of the mining industries; petroleum and its products, silver, gold, antimony, mercury, copper, lead, and zinc. Secondly, coffee, rubber, chicle, chick-peas, guayule, henequen, ixtle, mahogany, ebony, hides and skins, and raw cotton.

*Central America.*—Coffee, the principal; in addition, bananas, gold and silver, hides and skins, rubber, indigo, and sugar.

*Cuba.*—Sugar and tobacco; in addition, molasses, distillates, iron and copper ore, hardwoods, hides and skins, pineapples, honey, beeswax, and sponges.

*Dominican Republic and Haiti.*—Sugar, cacao, tobacco, coffee, bananas, beeswax, hides, and wood. From Haiti, in addition, cotton and cottonseed, honey, orange peel, logwood, and, recently, canned pineapple.

*Venezuela.*—Petroleum, coffee, cacao, rubber, balata, goatskins, asphalt, cattle hides, live cattle, heron plumes, and divi-divi.

*Colombia.*—Coffee, petroleum, bananas, tobacco, tagua nuts (vegetable ivory), rubber, divi-divi, platinum, and emeralds.

*Ecuador.*—Cacao, tagua nuts, straw hats, rubber, coffee, gold, hides, and raw cotton.

*Peru.*—Primarily products of the mining industries, especially copper, and petroleum and its products; in addition, rubber, sugar, cotton, wool, hides and skins, guano, and cottonseed oil.

*Brazil.*—Coffee; in addition, hides, rubber, maté, cacao, tobacco, skins, sugar, cotton, gold, manganese, nuts, carnauba wax, monazite sand, oilseeds and kernels, and chilled and frozen beef.

*Bolivia.*—Tin; in addition, silver, bismuth, copper, lead, zinc, rubber, hides and skins, and coca leaves.

*Paraguay.*—Hides, quebracho extract, cattle, maté, hardwoods, tobacco, oranges and tangerines, cotton, and oil of petit grain.

*Uruguay.*—Wool, hides and skins, meat extract, preserved meats, frozen and chilled meats, tallow and beef fat, residuary animal products, wheat, flour, and linseed.

*Argentina.*—Almost entirely products of the agricultural and meat-producing industries; of the first, wheat, Indian corn, linseed, oats, barley, flour, and bran and pollard; of the second, frozen and chilled meats, hides, wool, skins, residuary animal products of all kinds, meat extract, and butter; in addition, quebracho wood and extract.

*Chile.*—Over four-fifths of the Chilean exports are mineral, and the great bulk of this is sodium nitrate. In addition, there are iodine and borax, copper and bar silver, and iron and copper ore. Outside of mineral products, hides, wool, chinchilla fur, wax, some fruits, grains, and fresh or frozen meats.

Even in those countries of Latin America where European trade predominates, inter-American commerce, although it be small, has a recognizable volume. Some of the countries, because of the very nature of their produce, will continue to trade in European markets.

A statement of the international commerce of certain of the individual Latin American countries, showing the inter-American share therein, is given below:

Cuba's international trade totaled \$488,655,000 in 1929, \$329,863,000 in 1930, and \$198,977,000 in 1931. The inter-American percentages of this trade for the three years were 74.5, 69.8, and 73.4, respectively.

*Cuban international trade*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

	1929	1930	1931
Imports from other American countries.....	145,027	104,763	51,444
Imports from all other countries.....	71,188	57,689	28,667
Total imports.....	216,215	162,452	80,111
Exports to other American countries.....	219,088	125,543	94,664
Exports to all other countries.....	53,352	41,868	24,202
Total exports.....	272,440	167,411	118,866

The total international trade of Mexico amounted to \$486,738,000 in 1929, to \$404,426,000 in 1930, and to \$267,019,000 in 1931. Of these amounts 69.8 per cent in 1929, 68.2 per cent in 1930, and 73 per cent in 1931 represented Mexico's inter-American commerce.

*Mexican international trade*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

	1929	1930	1931
Imports from other American countries.....	135,637	120,844	73,884
Imports from all other countries.....	55,784	54,245	21,711
Total imports.....	191,421	175,089	95,595
Exports to other American countries.....	204,337	155,030	121,138
Exports to all other countries.....	90,980	74,307	50,286
Total exports.....	295,317	229,337	171,424

The international commerce of Honduras during the years 1929 to 1931, inclusive, totaled \$39,430,000, \$42,117,000, and \$30,319,000, respectively. The respective inter-American shares of this trade for the same years were 80.8, 79, and 75.8 per cent.

*Honduran international trade*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

	1929	1930	1931
Imports from other American countries.....	12, 613	13, 176	8, 000
Imports from all other countries.....	2, 248	2, 770	2, 291
Total imports.....	14, 861	15, 946	10, 291
Exports to other American countries.....	19, 265	20, 103	15, 000
Exports to all other countries.....	5, 304	6, 068	5, 028
Total exports.....	24, 569	26, 171	20, 028

Venezuelan trade with the world aggregated \$237,662,000 in 1929, \$217,385,000 in 1930, and \$166,388,000 in 1931. The proportionate share of inter-American commerce in these amounts was 75.1, 78.8, and 80.4 per cent, respectively.

*Venezuelan international trade*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

	1929	1930	1931
Imports from other American countries.....	49, 397	37, 188	20, 550
Imports from all other countries.....	38, 003	33, 036	20, 076
Total imports.....	87, 400	70, 224	40, 626
Exports to other American countries.....	129, 110	134, 226	113, 264
Exports to all other countries.....	21, 152	12, 935	12, 498
Total exports.....	150, 262	147, 161	125, 762

In the remaining countries of Central America and in the Dominican Republic and Haiti, inter-American trade represented double or more the value of all other trade in the 3-year period 1929 to 1931. In Colombia and Peru inter-American commerce averaged 72 and 60 per cent of the total, respectively, showing considerable advance over the pre-war period when it was less than half in both cases. In Brazil and Ecuador averages for the same period were 50 and 55 per cent, respectively. In Argentina, inter-American trade represented about one-fourth of the whole. In Chile the proportion was much greater, about 40 per cent, and in Uruguay a little over 35 per cent.



# STORIES TOLD IN STAMPS

By ADAM CARTER  
*Pan American Union Staff*

THE stamps of the Latin American nations tell many a colorful story about this New World of ours, to which so many hopes have been attached—some to be realized in epoch-making events, some to be extinguished, others to persist throughout the centuries.

These tales begin several hundred years before the Christian era. In a Peruvian stamp we find a picture of some Indian utensils, several hieroglyphics, and the word "Parakas." The culture here commemorated existed for about 10 centuries, in the Peninsula of Paracas (which at that time may have been an island) on the coast of Peru, south of Lima. That this civilization reached a high state of development is proven by its relics: Pottery, textiles, and stone implements. A great number of mummies have been found in Paracas, and some of them bear traces of surgical operations considered difficult even in our times.

On another Peruvian stamp we find the word "Chimu" and pictures of two dancing warriors, armed with lances and dressed in plumes. The empire of the Grand *Chimu* (King) flourished for several centuries and was finally conquered by the Incas several generations before the arrival of the Spaniards. The Grand *Chimu* held sway over an extensive zone in the northern Peruvian coast, and the center of his power was the walled city of Chan-Chan, situated between Trujillo and the seacoast. The ruins of this great city, the works of art and the amount of treasure they have yielded speak of a magnificent court and of a laborious people living in abundance and comfort.

Peruvian postage stamps also give us a portrait of Manco Capac, founder of the Inca empire, who lived in the eleventh century A. D. The manly beauty of this first Inca led the people to believe that he was a child of the Sun. History and tradition tell of his great deeds in establishing the mighty empire that lasted until the time of the *Conquistadores*.

Manco Capac founded the city of Cuzco, which attained such magnificence that the size and splendor of its buildings surprised the conquering Spaniards. Cuzco is situated in the Peruvian Andes, at the head of a small valley, 11,380 feet above sea level. Overlooking the city from the north is the famous hill of Sacsahuaman, on which are found the ruins of a mighty fortress built in the time of the Incas. The Cuzco of to-day contains many ruins of Incan palaces and for-



tresses, and some notable examples of Colonial architecture, such as the cathedral—one of the finest in South America—and the Convent of Santo Domingo, which partly occupies the site of the Incan Temple of the Sun. Many of the houses of Cuzco show the massive masonry of the Incas at the bottom of their walls, which end in light modern superstructures.

The empire of which Cuzco was the capital extended over Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, and parts of Colombia, Chile, and Argentina. The zenith of Inca civilization was reached in the time of Huayna Cápac



LATIN AMERICAN STAMPS

Upper: Three Peruvian stamps—a 15-centavo stamp issued in 1932, picturing Chimú dancing warriors; a 2-centavo stamp with a portrait of Manco Capac, founder of the Inca Empire; another of the 1932 series, a 50-centavo stamp, with the likeness of an Inca. Lower left: A Guatemalan stamp of 1921, depicting a monolith at Quiriguá. Lower right: A registry stamp of Mexico, bearing the national coat of arms.

(1525 A. D.). Civil strife among his successors helped to smooth the Spaniards' path of conquest, and Cuzco was captured by Pizarro in 1533.

Leaving Peru for Central America, we find in Guatemala a stamp depicting a monolith at Quiriguá, a Maya city founded in the second century A. D. and abandoned about 400 years later. Here a great religious center was established which covered more than 180 square miles and was surrounded by the dwellings of the natives. The monolith shown in the stamp is 26 feet high. The ruins of Quiriguá show how important the city was. There are eight other monoliths

of lesser height, several huge stones which were used as altars, and traces of great temples and palaces.

Quiriguá formed part of the Old Mayan Empire, which flourished mostly in Central America (Guatemala, Honduras, and El Salvador), and ended in the seventh century A. D. The new empire, which rose mainly in the Peninsula of Yucatán, was highly developed in the tenth century A. D., and may have begun before the downfall of the old empire. One of the remarkable features of Maya civilization is that it made astounding progress in regions which even to-day are considered most unhealthful. The ruins of great cities are found surrounded and overrun by dense tropical forests, in places whose climate is a constant menace to human life and a powerful deterrent to all forms of human endeavor. The fact that such a brilliant civilization developed on such unfavorable sites has led Dr. Sylvanus Morley, the famous archeologist, to remark that the Mayas were "the greatest race that ever lived on this earth." Up to the present time, no answer has been found to the question of why Quiriguá and other important cities of the old empire were abandoned more or less simultaneously. Was it due to famine, pestilence, war, or (as a modern sophisticate might suggest) merely boredom? Perhaps the hieroglyphics on the monoliths and monuments will some day give us the answer. The new empire, apparently, was wrecked by that plague of humanity, civil strife. It seems that in the twelfth century, some of the rival factions imported Toltec warriors from the Valley of Mexico in the northwest, and these newcomers, who were excellent fighters, finally brought peace to the Mayas by conquering them all.

Some of the Mexican stamps take us back to the thirteenth century and to the Aztecs, engaged then in a pilgrimage that was to end when they met a certain omen favorable to the establishment of a city. Eventually, they came to a lake in which cactus plants grew. Perched on one of these they saw an eagle devouring a serpent. This was exactly the omen the priests had been looking for and the place was chosen as the site of the new city, which was to become the Great Tenochtitlán, capital of an empire that in the fifteenth century extended to the shores of the Pacific and of the Mexican Gulf. Later on, this metropolis was transformed into Mexico City. The eagle, the serpent and the cactus became the national coat of arms, which appears on several stamps.

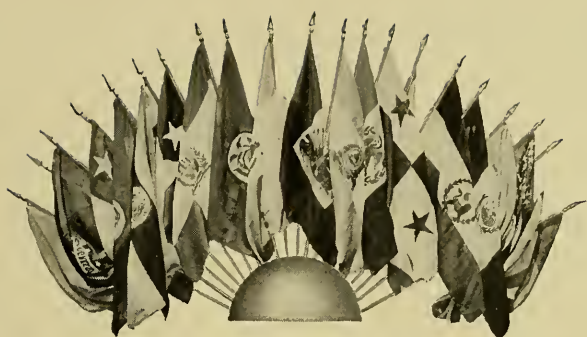
The troubled times of the Conquest, the Colonial epoch, the struggle for independence from the mother countries, and many other phases of Latin American life are commemorated in stamps that will be mentioned in future issues of the BULLETIN.



ARGENTINE PAINTINGS AT THE NATIONAL GALLERY OF ART, WASHINGTON, D. C.

A collection of paintings by the noted Argentine artist, Cesáreo Bernaldo de Quirós, which portray Gaucho life in the Province of Entre Ríos between 1850 and 1870, holds the place of honor at the National Gallery in Washington for a period of two months. The exhibit, which opened January 13, under the patronage of the Ambassador of Argentina, Dr. Felipe A. Espi, has attained the same success as in other world capitals where it has been shown since 1927.





## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Loan collection.*—The Library of the Pan American Union has recently accepted a loan collection of 115 books on the railroads of Brazil from Dr. Julian Smith Duncan. The publications include sets of compilations of railroad laws, reports of the Federal and State government departments, reports of railroad companies, and books privately printed on various phases of railroad activities.

*Library news from American nations.*—Two rooms of the National Library in Buenos Aires<sup>1</sup> have been dedicated to former directors, Dr. Pablo Groussac (1848–1929) and Dr. Carlos F. Melo (1873–1931), the latter to be a children's room. These are in addition to the room already dedicated to the noted Argentine writer, Dr. Amancio Alcorta (1842–1902), for which an inscription has been placed upon the door.

According to the latest report of the Library of the Universidad Nacional del Litoral, in Rosario de Santa Fe, Argentina, that library was open 295 days in 1931 and served 77,247 readers.

A report from the National Library of Managua, Nicaragua, states that during October, 1932, 1,710 readers, of whom 792 were children, used the library.

By decree of December 27, 1932, the Government of Uruguay established a series of libraries for army posts and for vessels of the navy. For the army the details of organization are in charge of Capt. Ángel Cambor.

*Literary awards.*—The "Dr. Ángel C. Betancourt" prize, given annually by the bar association of Habana for the best legal work submitted in competition, was awarded in 1929 to Juan Manuel Menocal y Barreras. In 1930 the first prize was awarded to José R. Fernández Figueroa and the second to Carlos Azcárate. The three volumes are listed in detail elsewhere in these notes.

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<sup>1</sup> See "The National Library of Argentina," by Gerald Herbert Sandy, in BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, October, 1932.



The National Association of University Students of the Dominican Republic held an essay contest for its members. The topic chosen was a critical study of the attitude of the Liberator, Simón Bolívar, toward the annexation of that country to Colombia. This proposal was included in the temporary constitution of 1821, drafted in Santo Domingo under the title of *Acta Constitutiva del Gobierno del Estado*, article 4 of which provided for annexation, with Santo Domingo a State in the Union of Colombia. The papers were read at an open meeting of the association held December 17 last, and that of Emilio Rodríguez Demorizi, entitled *La verdad es la justicia*, was judged the best. Special honorable mention was awarded the paper submitted by René de Lepervanche P., and honorable mention to those by J. R. Roques Martínez and Guido Despradel Batista.

*Change of format.*—*The West Coast Leader*, published for many years in Lima, Peru, appears under date of January 3, 1933, with its title changed to *The New West Coast Leader* and its size reduced to 9½ by 12½ inches. There is not, apparently, any change in the excellent quality of the material it has always published.

*Recent acquisitions.*—Among the books received in the library during the past month the following are especially noted:

*Opúsculos jurídicos* [por] Andrés Bello. Edición hecha bajo los auspicios de la Universidad de Chile. [Santiago de Chile, Editorial Nascimento, 1932.] 548 p. 25 cm. (*His Obras completas*, tomo 7.)

*Delincuencia infantil*; delincuencia infantil en los Estados Unidos y en la Argentina. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos de la penitenciaría nacional, 1932. 245 p. 22½ cm.

*Altamirano y el Barón de Wagner*; un incidente diplomático en 1862, documentos recopilados por Joaquín Ramírez Cabañas. México, Publicaciones de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1932. 92 p. 22½ cm. (Archivo histórico diplomático mexicano núm. 38.)

*El filibustero Walker en Nicaragua*, por Olmedo Alfaro. (Segunda edición aumentada.) Panamá, Editorial "La moderna," s. a., 1932. 89 p. fold. plates. 26 cm.

*Delgado, el padre de la patria*. Publicación de la Academia salvadoreña de la historia, por delegación del Comité pro-centenario . . . San Salvador, Imprenta nacional, 1932. 119 p. port. 24 cm.

*Los alambradores* [por] Víctor M. Dotti. Montevideo, Editorial Albatros, 1929. 106 p. 19 cm.

*Ausencia* [por] Arturo Torres Rioseco. Santiago [Imprenta universitaria] 1932. 160 p. 18½ cm.

*Historia de la República oriental del Uruguay*, por José Salgado . . . tomo VII: Guerra grande, la defensa de Montevideo, 1844. Montevideo, Peña hnos., 1932. 587 p. 23 cm.

*Aportación al padrón histórico de Montevideo*; época fundacional [por] Luis Enrique Azarola Gil. Madrid, Tip. de la "Revista de archivos, bibliotecas y museos," 1932. 91 p. 25 cm.

*Ingreso a la administración pública* [por] Francisco J. Casella . . . Montevideo, Maximino García [1932]. 283 p. 24½ cm.

*Album de la guardia del Libertador*, primer centenario de su muerte [por] Teniente coronel Tamayo. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1932. 119 p. illus., ports. 33½ cm.

*Cuestiones educacionales* (del ambiente nacional) [por] Julio C. Larra. Quito, Talleres tipográficos nacionales, 1932. 257 p. 20½ cm.

*Cuatro presidentes de Chile*, 1841-1876; Historia de la vida nacional en los períodos presidenciales de don Manuel Bulnes, don Manuel Montt, don José Joaquín Pérez, don Federico Errazuriz [por] Agustín Edwards. Valparaíso, Sociedad imprenta y litografía "Universo," 1932. tomo 1: 376 p. plates, ports. 24½ cm.

*La falsedad documental*, por José R. Fernández Figueroa . . . La Habana, Imprenta "El Siglo xx," 1932. 121 p. 22 cm. (Biblioteca del Colegio de abogados de la Habana, tomo v.)

*La moneda cubana y los problemas económicos* (disertación) [por] José Miguel Irisarri. La Habana, Imprenta "El Siglo xx," 1930. (Biblioteca del Colegio de abogados de la Habana, tomo III.)

*El Impuesto constitucional*, por Juan Manuel Menocal y Barreros . . . La Habana, Editorial Minerva, 1930. (Biblioteca del Colegio de abogados de la Habana, tomo IV.)

*Un país al garete*, contribución a la seismología social de Chile [por] Carlos Keller R. Santiago de Chile, Editorial Nascimento, 1932. 168 p. 19½ cm.

*El adulterio* (estudio doctrinal y de jurisprudencia, sobre la ley de 6 de febrero de 1930; en cuanto derogó los artículos 437, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451 y 452 del código penal vigente en Cuba), por Carlos Azcárate . . . La Habana, Imprenta "El Siglo xx," 1932. (Biblioteca del Colegio de abogados de la Habana, tomo VI.)

*Res nostra* [por] João Pandia Calogeras. S. Paulo, Estabelecimento graphico irmãos Ferraz, 1930. 290 p. fold. map. 28 cm.

*The balance of the continents*, by Mariano H. Cornejo . . . London, Oxford university press, 1932. 220 p. 18½ cm.

*Manual español-inglés e inglés-español de palabras y términos legales*; un libro de fácil referencia para el uso de traductores de documentos y obras en español o inglés, recopilado y adaptado por M. E. Bean. Nueva York, Londres, D. Appleton y compañía, 1933. 257 p. 18½ cm.

*Flight into America's past; Inca peaks and Maya jungles*, by Marie Beale. New York, London, G. P. Putnam's sons [c1933] 286 p. front., plates. 24 cm.

*New magazines.*—The following is a list of new magazines and magazines received for the first time during the past month:

"*Cartagena de Indias*"; revista de intereses generales. Órgano de la Oficina de información y propaganda de la ciudad y del puerto de Cartagena. Cartagena, Imprenta departamental, 1932. [57] p., illus., ports. 31 x 23 cm. Año I, número 5, diciembre de 1932. Monthly. Editors: C. M. Céspedes Jiménez, Manuel Esteban Pomares, Galo Alfonso López. Address: Oficina de información y propaganda, Cartagena, Colombia.

*Memorial técnico del ejército de Chile*; editado bajo la dirección del Instituto geográfico militar. Santiago de Chile, 1932. 152 p. diagrs. 26 x 19 cm. Año I, n° 1, octubre de 1932. Quarterly. Address: Instituto geográfico militar, Castro 354, Santiago de Chile.

*La gaceta económica*. Buenos Aires, 1932. p. 6602-6630. 31½ x 22 cm. Año XIV, núm. 157, noviembre de 1932. Monthly. Editor: Danton Gajardo. Address: Calle Florida 248, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

*El ensayo.* Órgano del "Instituto moderno." Trujillo, Peru, 1932. [25] p. plates. 27 x 19½ cm. Año x, no. 49, noviembre 4 de 1932. Monthly. Address: Instituto moderno, Trujillo, Peru.

*Atlantide;* organe de propagande scientifique et littéraire. Port au Prince, 1932. p. 73-110. ports. 29 x 22½ cm. 1<sup>ère</sup> année, no. 3, Décembre 1932. Monthly. French and English in parallel columns. Editor: Henry G. Sylvain. Address: 822, rue Férou, Port au Prince, Haiti.

*La raza.* San José, Costa Rica, 1932. 32 p. ports. 34½ x 27 cm. Número 2, diciembre 1932. Monthly. Editor: Max von Loewenthal. Address: Apartado 735, San José, Costa Rica.

*Interés nacional.* Buenos Aires, 1932. 64 p. diagrs. 28½ x 20 cm. Año v, núm. 56, diciembre 1932. Monthly. Editor: José M. Perreyra. Address: Maipú 17, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

*Ecos del mar,* periódico de la Asociación de "empleados de comercio" del Departamento Vargas, Venezuela. La Guaira, 1932. [33] p. illus., ports. 31½ x 23 cm. Año II, no. 40, 17 de diciembre de 1932. Editor: Elías Pérez Sosa. Address: Asociación de "empleados de comercio" del Departamento Vargas, La Guaira, Venezuela.

*Boletín del Ministerio de justicia, culto e instrucción pública.* Asunción, Imprenta nacional, 1932. 18 p. 27 x 18 cm. No. 1, septiembre, 1932. Monthly. Address: Ministerio de justicia, culto e instrucción pública, Asunción, Paraguay.

*Foto-revista;* órgano de la Sociedad nacional de fotógrafos. Bogotá, 1932. [20] p., incl. illus. 31½ x 21½ cm. Año I, n.º 1, diciembre de 1932. Monthly. Editor: J. N. Gómez. Address: Apartado No. 820, Bogotá, Colombia.

*Crisol;* revista de crítica. Mexico, 1932. p. 323-383. port. 22½ x 16½ cm. Año IV, tomo VIII, número 48, 15 de diciembre de 1932. Monthly. Editor: M. D. Martínez Rendón. Address: San Juan de Letrán, 5, Mexico, D. F.

*Minerales, piedras y petrificaciones;* el folleto para coleccionistas. Santo Domingo, Imprenta de J. R. vda. de García, sucs., 1932. 18 p. illus. 23½ x 15½ cm. Vol. I, no. 1, marzo de 1932. Quarterly. Editor: Emil Hollert. Address: Asociación de "Minerales, piedras y petrificaciones," Calle Isabel la Católica, No. 102, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.

*Boletín de la Academia panameña de la historia.* Panamá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 182 p. 24½ x 17 cm. Año I, No. 1, enero, 1933. Monthly. Address: Academia panameña de la historia, Apartado 973, Panamá, Panamá.

*Boletín del Instituto de las Españas en los Estados Unidos.* New York, 1932. 16 p. illus., port. 25½ x 18 cm. Número 6, noviembre, 1932. Monthly. Address: Casa de las Españas, 435 West One hundred and seventeenth Street, New York City.

*Commercio importador do Brasil;* revista dedicada ao desenvolvimento do commercio internacional: *The import trade of Brazil;* a fortnightly review dedicated to the development of international trade. [English and Portuguese in parallel columns.] Rio de Janeiro, 1932. 68 p. illus., port. 28½ x 22 cm. Vol. 1, n. 12, November, 1932. Semimonthly. Address: M. C. Pitcombo & Co., Ltd., P. O. Box 2784, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

*Periodicals discontinued.*—During the past month the Library of the Pan American Union received notice that the following magazines had suspended publication with the issues noted:

*La Agricultura austral* (Órgano de la Sociedad agrícola y ganadera de Osorno). Osorno, Chile, February, 1931.

*Revue de l'Amérique Latine,* Paris, October-December, 1932.

*Touring club paraguay,* Asunción, Paraguay, July, 1931.

*Changes of name.*—The library has been informed that the names of the following magazines have been changed:

*League of Red Cross societies*, Paris (formerly "Review and information bulletin of the League of Red Cross societies"), changed with vol. 14, No. 1, January, 1933.

*Boletín de la Liga de sociedades de la Cruz Roja*, Paris (formerly "Revista y boletín de información de la Liga de sociedades de la Cruz Roja"), changed with vol. iv, No. 1, January, 1933.

*Revista agrícola*, Guatemala (formerly "Boletín de agricultura y caminos de Guatemala"), changed with vol. 11, No. 1, January 1, 1933.





# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## TREATIES AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

*Denunciation of Central American Treaty of Peace and Amity.*—On December 4, 1922, delegates of the Central American Republics met in Washington at the invitation of the United States Government to discuss, among other matters, "the negotiations of a treaty or treaties to make effective those provisions of the treaties signed at Washington on December 20, 1917, which experience has shown to be effective in maintaining friendly relations and cooperation among the Central American States," and "the working out of a plan for setting up tribunals of inquiry whenever any disputes or questions regarding the proposed treaty or treaties, which can not be settled by diplomatic means, shall unfortunately arise between any two or more of the countries." After two months of deliberation, the representatives of the five nations signed on February 7, 1923, 11 treaties and conventions, which included the General Treaty of Peace and Amity and conventions for establishing an international Central American tribunal, international commissions of inquiry, and permanent Central American commissions of various kinds.

The outstanding feature of the treaty of peace and amity was the provision whereby each republic bound itself not to recognize in another a government resulting from the violent or illegal alteration of the constitutional organization. The treaty was signed and ratified by Costa Rica, Honduras, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and, with reservations, El Salvador. These reservations were made because certain conventions mentioned in the document had not been approved by the National Legislative Assembly, and because some provisions of the article dealing with violent changes of government were not in accordance with the constitution. During the last nine years the United States, while not a signatory, has conformed to the provisions of this treaty in the recognition of Central American Governments.

The treaty was to remain in force until January 1, 1934, and thereafter until one year after its denunciation by one of the contracting parties. The denunciation by one or two of the signatory nations, however, would leave it in force for those parties which had ratified and not denounced it, provided that they were no less than three in

number. On December 23, 1932, President Jiménez of Costa Rica, in decree No. 10, denounced the treaty in the following terms:

Since by virtue of law No. 21 of November 24, 1924, Costa Rica approved the General Treaty of Peace and Friendship signed by the Central American Republics in the city of Washington on February 7, 1923, and

Considering that some of the provisions of said treaty have not had in practice the results which were expected of them;

Therefore, in conformity with the procedure outlined in Article XVIII of said treaty, the President of the Republic decrees the denunciation of the treaty in question and the communication of this fact to the other republics of Central America.

Three days later President Martínez of El Salvador also denounced it; the reasons therefor are contained in the preamble to the decree, which reads as follows:

Whereas, Article XVIII of the Central American Treaty of Peace and Amity, concluded by the Republics of Central America on February 7, 1923, directs that the pact "shall remain in force until the 1st of January, 1934, regardless of any prior denunciation or any other reason," and that from the date indicated above "it shall continue in force until one year after the date on which one of the parties bound thereby notifies the others of its intention to denounce it;" and

Considering that in practice the results of said treaty have not been consonant with the high ideals which the negotiators had in mind in signing it;

That the Legislative Power did not ratify some of its principal stipulations because, in accordance with the opinion of the Supreme Court of Justice, it considered them contrary to definite provisions of the political constitution of the Republic, Therefore, etc.

The treaty will remain in force, however, for Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua, until one year after the date on which one of these three nations denounces it.—B. N.

*Recent modi vivendi.*—On November 12, 1932, a *modus vivendi* was signed by Argentina and Chile in order to revive their declining trade relations, which had eventually resulted in the closing of the Trans-Andine Railroad on account of lack of traffic. This agreement, which was to be effective from November 15 for a period of six months, provided a temporary basis for increased trade, and it was hoped that in the meantime a permanent treaty for later adoption could be drawn up.

The *modus vivendi* provided that Chilean customs tariffs should revert to the schedules in effect in 1930 regarding Argentine cattle and quebracho extract, and to the schedules of 1926 regarding refrigerated and canned meats and meat preserves. On the other hand, Argentina was to grant a 50 per cent reduction from existing customs tariffs on the following Chilean products: Various kinds of timber, fence posts, barrels, peas, split peas, lentils, hominy, beans, garlic and onions, tomato paste, malted barley, ground barley and

oats, rapeseed, apples, pears, fresh alligator pears, wine grapes, dried plums and apples, nuts, preserved fruits, fruit juices and fresh fruits, petits pois, asparagus, crabs, lobsters, oysters, fresh and canned fish and all kinds of sea food in general, industrial nitrate of soda, sulphate of copper (not pure), carbonate of copper, glue, plaster of Paris, tartaric acid, quillay bark, and boldo leaves.

As a result of the agreement, railway service between Mendoza, Argentina, and Los Andes, Chile, was reopened on December 5, 1932, after having been closed for approximately eight months.

On November 1, 1932, the 1930 *modus vivendi* covering the exportation and importation of products between the districts of Tacna and Arica, of Peru and Chile, respectively, was extended for a period of six months, and its bases were considerably broadened. During the supplementary period of the agreement, it was planned to draft a permanent treaty between the two countries. By the *modus vivendi* of November 1, in addition to products entering Tacna duty free from Arica, Peru granted Chile the following concessions: Chilean cereals, grains, garlic, malt, canned goods, tomato sauce, hides, and glass articles except bottles and flasks will pay only one-half the regular import duties and surtaxes at all Peruvian ports. In addition, all import duties and taxes have been removed from Chilean fresh and dried fruits, sulphur, rough lumber, barrels, and box shooks. The important Chilean steamship line, Compañía Sudamericana de Vapores, was also granted special concessions in Chilean-Peruvian trade.

In return, Chile has removed the duty on fresh fruits and vegetables imported from the Peruvian province of Tacna, suspended the additional tax on Peruvian cottonseed oil, and agreed to extend most-favored-nation treatment to Peruvian rice, coffee, edible oils, sugar, and petroleum.

Mixed commissions, composed of nationals of both Chile and Peru, have been formed to consider the bases for a future permanent treaty. The action of these commissions, whose members are representatives of chambers of commerce and similar trade groups, has been unofficial.—H. G. S.

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## MINISTRY OF NATIONAL ECONOMY IN MEXICO

By means of a decree issued by the Chief Executive on November 30, 1932, which became effective on January 1, 1933, two new governmental organizations were established in Mexico: the Ministry of National Economy and the Department of Labor.

These new offices replace the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor. The reason for the reorganization was the desire to secure a

better classification of activities, based on a more logical division of labor and designed to increase expediency and efficiency. The work of the Ministry of National Economy is divided into five main sections, dealing, respectively, with research, the profitable utilization of natural resources, distribution, service, and consultation. The activities of the new ministry have been planned to secure for Mexico the most profitable use of its resources of raw materials and manufactured products by domestic consumption or by exports to foreign markets. In order to guide the distribution of products and increase demand, the ministry will conduct publicity campaigns, promote international commercial relations and tourist travel, and seek the economic support of the cooperative societies, both producing and consuming, established within the country. Among other matters falling within the province of the new ministry are the following: National statistics; the study, organization, and protection of the general economic welfare of the country within the scope of its power; the organization, standardization, promotion, and supervision of industry in general, with the exception of enterprises agricultural in character; mining; petroleum and other mineral fuels; geophysical research and special surveys; control of electric power, with the exception of water-power concessions; foreign and domestic commerce; the organic law and its regulations for carrying out Article 28 of the National Constitution (which forbids monopolies); commercial and industrial associations and chambers; cooperative societies, with the exception of those for agricultural production; industrial and commercial property rights; and national and international exhibits and expositions. In connection with tourist travel (formerly under the Ministry of the Interior) a general plan of action has already been drafted, which contemplates the establishment of official tourist aid and information offices with which the chambers of commerce in Mexico will cooperate.

The Department of Labor, which is no longer connected with any of the Federal ministries, deals with the study, initiation, and application of Federal labor laws and regulations; labor and employers' associations; labor contracts; labor inspection; national and international labor congresses and meetings; conflicts between capital and labor or between labor unions; legal matters connected with labor; and social research and information, including the Office of Social Welfare and of Industrial Hygiene.

The Minister of National Economy, Licenciado Primo Villa Michel, expects soon to coordinate the organizations connected with various aspects of governmental and private activity in the economic field. The National Confederation of Chambers of Commerce has offered hearty support and cooperation to the new ministry.—A. C.



## THE SIMÓN BOLÍVAR HIGHWAY

Geographical factors played no small part in the disintegration of Greater Colombia, Simón Bolívar's dream of a strong republic comprising the former Spanish provinces in northern South America.



Courtesy of Antonio Vega M.

## THE SIMÓN BOLÍVAR HIGHWAY

The territory, almost as great as the portion of the United States east of the Mississippi, was broken up by the great Cordillera of the Andes into a number of distinct geographical units, a fact which encouraged political separatism. To-day the development of highway communication in Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador is rapidly doing away

with the geographical isolation of a century ago and strengthening the ties which bind these sister republics. In Venezuela the Andean Highway, opened to traffic since 1925, runs from La Guaira to the Colombian border. Colombia is now finishing a trunk highway from the Venezuelan to the Ecuadorean border, and Ecuador inaugurated in 1930 a road from Rumichaca on the Colombian border to Babahoyo, a river port connected with Guayaquil by steamer. Thus within the near future a continuous highway from La Guaira on the Caribbean to Guayaquil on the Pacific will traverse the territory of former Greater Colombia. What could be more fitting than to name it for the Liberator? That is the proposal recently made by Señor Antonio Vega M., and accepted in principle by the Bolivarian Societies and the Governments of the three countries concerned.

The route of the highway is shown in the accompanying map, part of a study made by Señor Vega. It connects the capitals of the three countries—Caracas, Bogota, and Quito—and their principal commercial cities, traversing the Venezuelan States of Miranda, Aragua, Carabobo, Yaracuay, Lara, Trujillo, Merida, and Tachira; the Colombian Departments of Santander del Norte, Santander del Sur, Boyaca, Cundinamarca, Tolima, Caldas, Valle, Cauca, and Nariño; and the Ecuadorean Provinces of Charchi, Imbabura, Pichincha, Leon, Tungurahua, Chimborazo, Bolivar, Los Rios, and Guayas. Its total length will be approximately 2,300 miles, of which about 2,000 are already open to traffic. Of the 300 or so miles which remain to be built, 210 are in Colombia and 93 in Ecuador. According to the plans of the Ministry of Public Works, the Colombian section of the highway will be finished by 1934, the Colombian Government being now engaged on a 3-year program of national highway construction with the main object of providing a trunk highway from Cucuta, near the Venezuelan border, to Pasto, near the Ecuadorean border, with the necessary tributary roads. The total appropriation for this purpose is 4,650,000 pesos, of which 1,620,000 pesos are reported as having been expended during 1932. The unfinished stretch in the Ecuadorean section extends, as shown by the map, from a few miles south of Guaranda to Daule, 40 miles from Guayaquil. Should it be unfinished by 1934, communication may be had to Guayaquil, the principal seaport of Ecuador, via the Guaranda-Babahoyo road and river steamers from the latter city. Aside from its commercial importance, the Simón Bolívar Highway will have a great historical and scenic appeal and should prove an added attraction for the tourist who visits these countries.—G. A. S.

## MOTION PICTURES IN MEXICO

During the year 1932, the Mexican motion picture industry made remarkable progress. Production of films with sound was begun, and at the end of the year more than half a dozen such pictures had been released, with most encouraging results.

The first sound picture offered the public bore the title *Santa*, and was based on a novel of that name written by the famous Mexican author, don Federico Gamboa. The cast was headed by well-known Spanish-speaking artists who had previously won distinction for themselves on stage and screen. The première of *Santa* was a brilliant and imposing affair, the theater being filled to capacity with a distinguished audience headed by the Diplomatic Corps. The results obtained with this first fruit of the national industry could not have been more encouraging. It broke all records established by foreign pictures in the theater where it opened, and had a great popular success throughout the country.

The same company that produced *Santa* afterward completed several other pictures varying in length, in which the great progress made in the new art was clearly shown. In many ways, these films compare favorably with the majority of those produced abroad. One of the pictures made during 1932, called *Mano a Mano* (Hand in Hand), gave the famous Mexican *charros* (cowboys) ample opportunity to show their daring and skill. Defects in plot and dialogue, not surprising in a pioneer production, were compensated for by the fact that many of the scenes were enacted in the open country, where the Mexican landscape appears in all its glorious beauty. Production for the year was completed by several short films, which were quite successful in attracting and pleasing the public.

If the record of achievement thus far made by the motion picture industry in Mexico is excellent, its present activities and preparations for the future are even more promising. Two other new companies have been formed which will soon make their first releases. New studios are being constructed near Mexico City and in those already established the work of production is proceeding at a fast pace. Two of the Mexican producers, the brothers Rodríguez, have invented a system of sound which bears their name.

The subjects of the pictures that are scheduled to appear in 1933 are exceedingly interesting: Dramatic episodes of modern life; legends and tales from the rich accumulation of Mexican tradition;

stories set in the days of the Revolution and made more realistic by the participation of military forces lent by the Government, which is taking great interest in the new industry and giving it every possible aid; and romantic scenes from the glorious artistic past of the Nation, as, for example, the film *Sobre las Olas* (Over the Waves), which brings back to life the tragic figure of the great composer Juventino Rosas, author of the universally known waltz whose name the picture bears.

In view of past accomplishments, and of the success it is reasonable to expect for the films soon to be released, it is not venturesome to predict that a brilliant era of motion-picture productions is beginning in Mexico, in which actors and directors will find new means for artistic expression and technicians will have the opportunity to reach the levels of proficiency attained in the principal film centers of the world.—A. C.

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## NECROLOGY

*Alberto Diez de Medina.*—The death of Dr. Alberto Diez de Medina, Bolivian statesman, occurred in Buenos Aires December 30, 1932. Born in La Paz, Bolivia, September 11, 1877, Doctor Diez de Medina was educated there and in Santiago, Chile, and began his political career as a member of the legislature in 1901. Six years later, as chargé d'affaires of Bolivia in Brazil, he entered the diplomatic service, where his interest in international problems and love for America as the "greater fatherland" made him one of the outstanding figures of his time. His diplomatic career was interrupted by appointments at home, where he served during different administrations as Governor of Oruro and Minister of Foreign Affairs, and extended his influence by his editorship of *La Época* and *La Tarde* (1910-11). He represented his country as Minister in Argentina, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Venezuela, and was delegate to the Postal Congress, Montevideo, 1910, and the Second Pan American Scientific Congress, Washington, 1915-16. Since 1916 he had been a member of the American Institute of International Law, the Bolivian chapter of which he had organized.

*Francisco J. Peynado.*—On January 1, 1933, one of the most distinguished citizens of his generation in the Dominican Republic, Francisco J. Peynado, died of pneumonia in Paris. Señor Peynado, who was born in Puerto Plata October 4, 1867, won national and international repute as a lawyer. He was the founder and first president of the Dominican Bar Association, member of the Inter-American



High Commission, representative of his country in boundary discussions with Haiti in 1899 and 1910, coauthor of the protocol known as the Hughes-Peynado Plan, signed June 10, 1922, and one of the Dominican members of the commission which drafted the treaty of January 21, 1929, between Haiti and the Dominican Republic.

In other realms of public life Señor Peynado was well known. He had been a member of the Superior Council of Public Instruction, Counsellor of the Department of Promotion and Public Works, Secretary of the Treasury, and Secretary of Foreign Affairs. His interest in politics led him to publish several books dealing with historical and legal phases of political science. As an orator, too, he had a brilliant reputation at home and abroad.

In Pan American affairs also Señor Peynado took a prominent part. As minister of his country to the United States, he was a member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union from 1912 to 1914. American congresses to which he was a delegate included the First Pan American Financial Congress, the Second Pan American Scientific Congress, both of which met in Washington in 1915, and the Sixth International Conference of American States, Habana, 1928.



ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



TRAVEL IN THE AMERICAS  
PAN AMERICAN DAY  
APRIL 14

APRIL

1933

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

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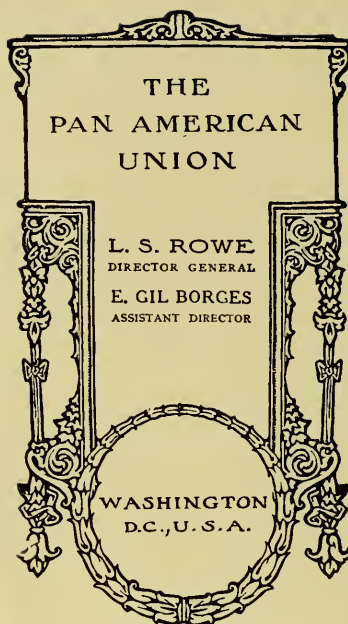
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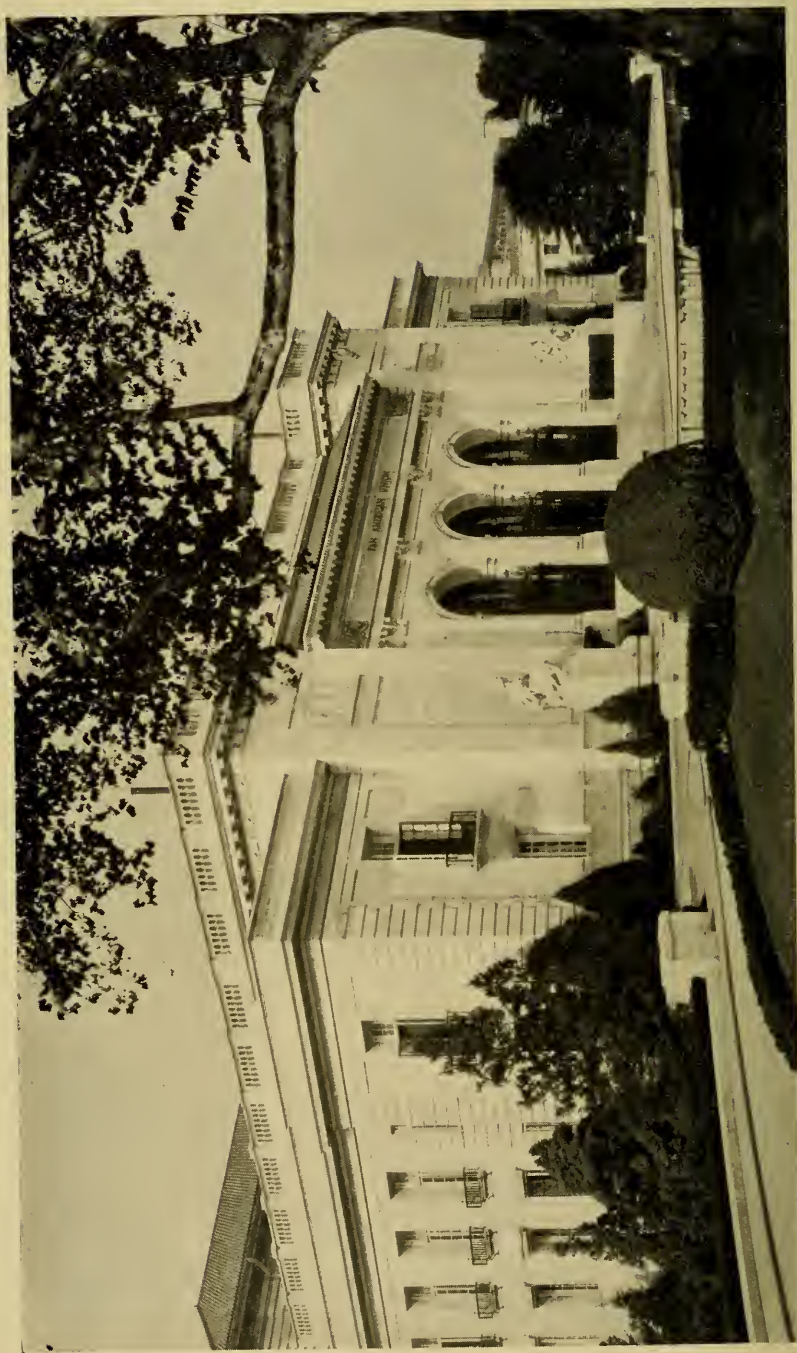
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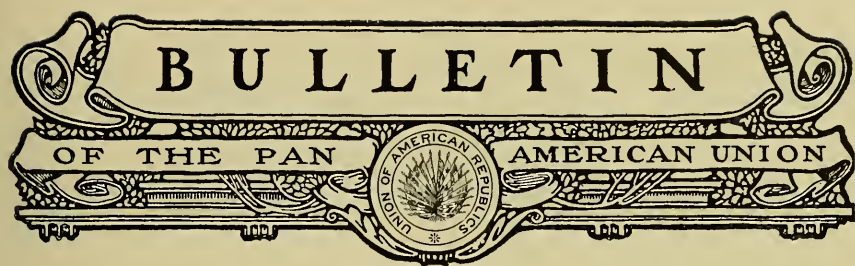
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## TRAVEL IN THE AMERICAS

### FOREWORD

By L. S. ROWE, Ph. D., LL. D.

*Director General, Pan American Union*

WITH each succeeding year the celebration of Pan American Day is acquiring a larger and deeper significance. It must be a source of real inspiration to every one interested in the development of Pan American unity to realize that on Pan American Day, throughout the American Continent, public schools, universities and many organizations are arranging special exercises intended to promote good will and better understanding between the nations of the Western World. It is through such currents of intellectual understanding that the unity of the nations of America is best promoted.

The special number of the BULLETIN issued this year by the Pan American Union for the purpose of commemorating Pan American Day is devoted, in large part, to a series of brief essays setting forth the great natural beauties of the Latin American countries and the attractions which they offer to the tourist. In the development of closer understanding between the nations of America the encouragement of travel is one of the most important influences and the Pan American Union is sparing no effort to this end. It is highly desirable that the people of the United States in ever increasing number should become better acquainted not only with the marvelous natural beauties of the countries of Latin America but should learn more of the culture of the great nations, members of the Pan American Union. It is our hope that the Pan American Day number of the BULLETIN will make a contribution to this larger purpose.





A PARTIAL VIEW OF BUENOS AIRES, SHOWING THE CAPITOL

The tourist in search of the attractions of large modern cities will find Buenos Aires to his liking. Its boulevards, drives, and artistic centers are reminiscent of Paris, while the activity along commercial thoroughfares reminds the visitor of the great business centers of the United States. Its population is more than 2,000,000.

# ARGENTINA

By RÓMULO YEGROS

*Secretary General, Touring Club Argentino*

IF WE consider that the urge of the tourist is to seek in other countries scenes, experiences, life, in short, which differs from that found in his own environment, one can not but conclude that an ideal country for his travels is the Republic of Argentina. The traveler from warm countries may engage in winter sports in below-zero temperatures at Bariloche, Lake Argentino, Lake Buenos Aires, or Mendoza, and the visitor from such cold regions as Canada and the countries of northern Europe can, with equal facility, find summer heat in the delightful mountains of La Rioja, Jujuy, and Catamarca, in the forests of Santiago del Estero or Tucuman, or by the beautiful cataracts of Iguazu, which are superior in volume and perhaps in natural beauty to Niagara Falls.

Again, the tourist who wanders in quest of peace, of quietness, of communion with nature in the highest meaning of the term, will find in Argentina a thousand regions of diverse climate where the only sounds to disturb his rest and contemplation will be the wind and the song of birds; while the traveler who seeks the turbulence, the noise, the daily tragedy and comedy of the great modern cities will find that Buenos Aires, the cosmopolitan metropolis of 2,195,000 inhabitants, will recall to his mind other great capitals of the world: Paris because of her boulevards, avenues, and art centers; American cities because of the feverish activity of her business districts; Berlin because of her fine buildings and the width and cleanliness of her streets and avenues; London because of her chimneys and her soot.

Let us now cast a brief glance over some of the attractions which the tourist will find in Argentina, to decide whether, if there is truth in that well-known saying: "See Naples and die," it may not also truly be said, "Visit Argentina and . . . continue living with a more ample idea of the beauty and natural richness of America."

The most famous seashore resort of Argentina is Mar del Plata, on the Atlantic coast, 250 miles from the city of Buenos Aires. Nearly 100,000 persons from all parts of the Republic and from other countries gather at this beach during the summer. It has large modern hotels, in addition to innumerable villas, casinos, luxurious clubs, golf courses, and athletic fields in general; a great port, in part military; and surroundings blessed with an ideal climate from November to April.





Courtesy of the International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation

#### MAR DEL PLATA FROM THE AIR

Modern hotels, mansions and villas, luxurious casinos, clubs for golf and other sports, and an ideal climate make Mar del Plata the leading seaside resort of Argentina.

Other popular ocean resorts are Necochea, a well-known bathing beach at a somewhat greater distance from Buenos Aires than Mar del Plata; Quequén, Miramar, Mar del Sud, Atlantic City, Claromecó, Bahía Blanca, and Trelew.

Near the city of Buenos Aires the shores of the Rio de la Plata (25 miles in width at its narrowest point and 225 miles wide as it empties into the ocean) are dotted with attractive summer resorts, well patronized by the families of the capital and of the surrounding country. One may rely on finding good hotels, casinos, pools, and diversions of various kinds. Similar towns are to be found in the Provinces along the great Parana and Paraguay Rivers.

The Argentine Touring Club has coined the word "andinismo" to signify mountain climbing in the Andes which divide Argentina and Chile. Besides the snow-capped giants of the range, there are mountains covered with forests and rich, luxuriant vegetation in La Rioja, Jujuy, Catamarca, Salta, San Juan, and Mendoza and throughout Patagonia. Mountain climbing is enjoyed in Mendoza not far from the capital of the Province; in La Rioja, which possesses a wonderful climate; in Catamarca, famous for its beautiful landscapes, and in Rio Negro, where is found El Tronador, a peak 10,000 feet in height. The favorite centers for winter sports are at Puente del Inca, Province of Mendoza, on the road to Chile, at Cacheuta, and at Bariloche.



Courtesy of Touring Club Argentino

#### WINTER SPORTS AT PUENTE DEL INCA

When it is summer in the northern hemisphere Argentina offers winter sports in the Andes, one of the favorite resorts being Puente del Inca, Mendoza Province, on the road to Chile.

Argentine families, as well as foreigners resident in the country, are fond of spending a vacation, especially between September and May, in the hills, which are beautiful in their variety of scenery and healthful because of the purity of the air and the properties of the mineral waters. Some of these hilly districts are found in the southern part of the province of Buenos Aires, in Cordoba, in the central part of the country, and in San Luis.

There are few regions in the country that have a greater lure for the tourist than the hills of Cordoba. Various railroad lines offering excellent service, good automobile roads, large and small hotels, and casinos make a trip into these hills both convenient and comfortable. It would be highly regrettable to visit Argentina and fail to see this charming Argentine countryside. The hills of San Luis, less known to the tourist, are celebrated for their highly prized marble quarries.

The country also possesses a number of large lakes much frequented by travelers because of their beauty of environment, the delicious fish with which they abound, or the health giving qualities of their waters. Among those deserving first mention is Lake Nahuel-Huapi (Araucanian for "Isle of the Tiger"), 3,400 square miles in extent, 2,515 feet above sea level, and having a depth of about 1,000 feet. This lake is in the Southern National Park in Rio Negro Territory, at the foot of the Andes. Various hotels on the shores of the lake are



managed by Swiss, who consider the region equal to their own country in beauty and healthfulness. Lakes Argentino and Buenos Aires, situated in Santa Cruz, at the foot of the cordillera, are also enormous, beautiful, and mysterious, but the trek of the tourist toward them has not yet assumed large proportions.

Lake Eppecuen in the Province of Buenos Aires has such a high salt saturation that the human body can float on the surface without the need of any motion whatsoever. The water contains much chlorine and sulphur.

Mar Chiquita, a lake in Cordoba, in the center of the country, is also a favorite with the traveler and resident alike because of the rich mineral content of its waters, and Chascomus, a lake near Buenos Aires, because of the excellent fishing to be had there.

The more famous hot springs of Argentina are: Cacheuta, Puente del Inca, and Villavicencio in Mendoza, more than 3,300 feet above sea level, and offering all the accommodations and facilities required by the visitor; Rosario de la Frontera in Salta, which has a good hotel; Termas de Reyes in Jujuy; Mina Clavero, La Cumbre, and others in Cordoba, which have good hotels and roads, and Copahue, in Patagonia, whose waters have been found to give exceptional curative results.

Small picturesque cascades of much beauty are located in the Province of Cordoba, but the really magnificent falls of Argentina are in the Province of Iguazu, on the frontier with Brazil and Paraguay. The Iguazu river, two and a half miles in width, hurls its waters over two huge stone steps from a height of 2,300 feet; the result is probably the most remarkable spectacle on the continent. An excellent modern hotel is located on the edge of the falls, and several times during the week a boat leaves Buenos Aires for the Iguazu.

The tourist interested in historical sights will find in Argentina buildings, and even entire towns, which retain to this day the appearance they presented in the colonial era, between 1500 and 1800. They are situated chiefly in Cordoba, Jujuy, Salta, La Rioja, and Catamarca. The inhabitants of many of the villages of these Provinces conserve the traditions of their Spanish ancestry. This phenomenon, however, should not be considered as characteristic of Argentina, which is in reality a cosmopolitan, changing country, assimilating with rapidity the usages and customs of the countries which send her immigrants.

From the foregoing, it can be seen that Argentina is a country well worth the attention of the tourist, whether he seek local color, health, tranquillity, comfort, adventure, or have some other motive for his travels. Our country can satisfy all tastes, and her inhabitants, who have inherited the hospitable spirit of the noble Spaniards of old, believe with the Argentine Touring Club that "the people of Argentina should make of every foreign tourist a good friend of the country."

## BOLIVIA

**L**A PAZ, the chief city of Bolivia, has a most unusual location. The traveler visiting this city for the first time can but marvel at the wild beauty presented in this mountainous region. Here the tablelands of the eastern range of the Andes were long ago divided, seemingly by a great natural convulsion, and a gigantic canyon was created. It is about 3 miles wide, 1,500 feet deep, and 10 miles long, with an opening toward the south. La Paz lies in the heart of this canyon. In journeying to the city over any of the main-traveled routes one rises to an altitude of more than 14,000 feet above sea level. Barren lands and mountain peaks stretch in every direction; many of the highest points are covered with snow and at other places the outcropping of minerals presents highly colored surfaces which have their own individual attraction.

Arriving by train at El Alto, a village and station situated on the western edge of the canyon, the visitor is held breathless at the glorious sight presented by mountain peaks and abysmal depths. The train halts, giving an opportunity to view the unusual spectacle. Illimani, Illampu, Huayna-Potosi, and other snow-capped peaks seem to pierce the skies. He looks up their barren and majestic slopes and then down into the great canyon where stands La Paz.

After the brief stop at El Alto at the top of the pass the train begins to wind its downward course into the valley. The engineers who blazed this route and succeeded in constructing the railway along the precipitous sides accomplished an almost superhuman feat. The approach to the city is unique, replete with spectacular beauty; and at every turn of the road entirely different views unfold.

La Paz is a city of exotic charm to the foreigner. Its spacious colonial residences of stone, attractive modern chalets, gay flowers, hilly streets, the brilliant colors of the Cholo and Indian costumes, and the picturesque market offer a kaleidoscopic view of never-failing interest.

Rugged topography is responsible for unusual features of street and building construction. In the heart of the city stands Plaza Murillo, on the side of a slope. It was the scene of early sanguinary battles where many Bolivians, including Murillo himself, gave up their lives at the beginning of the fight for freedom from Spanish dominion. On one side of the plaza stands the comparatively new Legislative Palace. On another side is the President's mansion; adjoining this, the new Cathedral, recently completed after having been nearly a century under construction. Its towers rise more than 200 feet above



#### LA PAZ, BOLIVIA

The chief city of Bolivia, situated in an Andine canyon at an elevation of 12,700 feet, is a city of great charm for the visitor. Upper: The Legislative Palace faces a plaza containing the statue of Murillo, a hero of Bolivian independence. Lower: With snow-clad Illimani as a background, this monument to Columbus occupies a picturesque site in La Paz.



the plaza, and its seating capacity is about 12,000. Of Greco-Roman architecture, it is one of the outstanding houses of worship in South America. La Paz, of course, has many other churches, that of San Francisco, dating from 1547, being the oldest in the republic.

Another interesting building in La Paz is the restored Palace of Tiahuanaco. The stones were recovered from the ruins of the ancient city, 60 miles distant, and re-erected in the Bolivian capital. The building presents the characteristics of pre-Incan architecture in which, if the circle was not unknown, at least it was never used. No visitor should fail to see this unique building.



Courtesy of the Municipal Touring Bureau, La Paz

#### THE SANCTUARY OF COPACABANA

On the shores of Lake Titicaca is located the colonial shrine of Copacabana, of which only the unusual entrance is shown above.

Directly across the Plaza Murillo from the Presidential Palace and the cathedral stands one of the city's new hotels and beside it a new theater and modern motion-picture house.

One of the picturesque suburbs of La Paz is Obrajes, a short motor drive along the Chuquiaguillo, 6 miles away from and 1,000 feet below the city. This excursion is always interesting to the stranger, as the route offers opportunities for observing the geological formation of the mountains and enjoying their shifting color which, seen through the clear air, appear to be only a short distance away. The lower altitude gives Obrajes a much warmer climate, which produces a wealth of flowers in the gardens of the handsome villas.

A longer trip is that to the Yungas region. The traveler, remembering that La Paz is located in lands barren except for trees and vege-





BALSAS ON LAKE TITICACA

A trip by modern steamer across Lake Titicaca reveals the extensive use by Indians of this type of craft constructed of reeds.

tation along the mountain streams, may be surprised to find, before he has penetrated far into the district, rank foliage and prolific vegetation; this is because the descent is rapid and the temperature rises perceptibly as the lower altitude is reached. A few years ago construction was begun on a railroad between La Paz and the Yungas, but after some 30 miles or more was built, the project was temporarily abandoned.

Sixty miles from La Paz in another direction are the ruins of Tiahuanaco, a city that flourished centuries ago; recent scientific investigation estimates the age of these ruins at about 3,000 years. At Tiahuanaco may be seen the work of skilled builders and artisans, some of whose creations are as marvelous as those in Egypt. Among these are splendidly cut stone, carved doorways, parts of dwellings, and smaller works of art. Most of the ruins stand about 10 miles distant from that great body of water, Lake Titicaca, famous in legend and story. Here and there is evidence that the city may in the past have extended to the shores of the lake.

Lake Titicaca is about 125 miles long and 75 miles wide. In the lake are numerous islands, the two of greatest historic interest being those of the Sun and of the Moon. From the waters of Lake Titicaca, says Inca tradition, the forefathers of the race emerged.

# BRAZIL

BY ANNIE D'ARMOND MARCHANT

*Assistant Editor, Boletim da União Pan-Americana*

**B**RAZIL, within the vast expanse of its 3,291,416 square miles, an area greater than that of the continental United States, holds marvels to excite the wonder and admiration of the most avid traveler in search of thrills. The mighty Amazon, the greatest river in the world in volume and width, flows through Brazil, and on the lakes formed by its backwaters grows the largest flower in the world, the dreamlike Victoria Regia. The deepest gold mine is at Morro Velho, and three of the greatest falls, the Paulo Affonso in the north, and the Iguassú<sup>1</sup> (or Victoria) and the Sete Quedas in the south, are within or on its borders. Caves of strange and marvelous formation, birds of rarest plumage, and flowers of the most exotic beauty abound in forest and plain.

To get an idea of a short trip to Brazil imagine yourself on a fast steamer bound for Rio de Janeiro. Perhaps no one thing impresses the traveler with the size of Brazil as much as its apparently interminable coastline, about 5,000 miles long, including its sinuosities. One bright day you hear, "We're now off the coast of Brazil." Then, as day after languorous tropical day goes by, you begin to wonder if this coast of Brazil is literally made of rubber and will stretch out for ever and aye.

A splendid time this to plan future excursions as you pass. Presently you will come to the mouth of the Amazon, thrusting its mighty volume of fresh water for miles out through the briny deep. Here plan a marvelous visit to Belem, often known as Para, the name of the State of which it is the capital, and a journey up the river to the fabulous old rubber center, Manaos. Glimpse the wonder of the Amazon Valley and touch the border of the mysterious jungle. Imagine a visit up the Tapajoz to the Ford rubber plantation.

Just around the corner watch out for Natal and plan wonderful flights from the airport there to other parts of the country, or to Africa and back; you remember that this is the country of Santos Dumont, that pioneer of aviation. Note the historical cities of Recife, or Pernambuco, with its famous reef, and São Salvador, or Bahia, once the capital of the country, and consider a delightful visit there.

And here at last is Rio! Prepare to be a spectator at a great scene. For Rio harbor is a vast stage which nature and man have conspired to prepare with lavish grandeur and subtle art—the splendid Guanabara

<sup>1</sup> The Spanish form of this name is Iguazú.



RIO DE JANEIRO, BRAZIL.

Upper: One section of the city as seen from Corcovado. Rio de Janeiro in its natural growth is spreading around the bases and up the more gentle slopes of the mountain peaks which border the harbor. Lower: Mariscal Floriano Plaza and the Avenida Rio Branco. At the far end of the Plaza is the splendid Municipal Theater, while along the left are modern office buildings and motion-picture theaters.



Bay with its granite sentinels; its massive forts; its islands; the city spreading out over hill and coast, reclining against its great bulwark of forest-covered mountains, with the Atlantic at its feet. Rio harbor has been described often and enthusiastically. It was an English traveler who perhaps said the most in the fewest words when he wrote that in beauty and grandeur no other harbor in the world is worthy to touch the hem of the garment of Rio de Janeiro.

Upon landing in Rio the traveler finds himself at once in the thick of things, for to get anywhere he must follow the Avenida Rio Branco, the broad modern thoroughfare which was slashed straight through the heart of the city from sea front to sea front nearly 30 years ago. The avenida bustles with activity, the streets with traffic and the broad ornamental sidewalks with pedestrians. From end to end it is a delight to the eye, with its imposing public buildings, stores, hotels, theaters, and cinemas, including the Monroe Palace and the Municipal Theater; its shade trees down the center and along its beautiful water fronts; and its gorgeous illumination at night.

Now to choose a hotel—and there is a wide choice, downtown, if you like, or by the sea or facing the bay or on a hill. Then to the business of sight-seeing. First in order will probably be a trip by rail to the top of the Corcovado, a granite peak 2,329 feet high, surmounted by a gigantic figure of the Christ with arms extended in the form of a cross. The ride up is most thrilling and the panorama from the top is indescribable, with the city flattened out and silenced, looking like a great map. The ascent to the Sugar Loaf, however, which is not so high, is in a way more spectacular, for your car will travel suspended in space high above sea and earth. Of the view a much-traveled American visitor said helplessly: "Nothing like this ever happened before. How does one describe it?" Then there is the long and thrilling drive up Tijuca, a visit to its curious rock caves and the descent around by the sea. Each of these excursions is unique in itself, a thing of beauty, to live in the memory forever.

A dash around the select residential sections, with their fine dwellings and luxurious gardens, will furnish wide variety: Santa Thereza Hill, Botafogo on its own graceful bay, Copacabana on the open Atlantic, to mention a few. Unforgettable is a ride around Copacabana Beach by moonlight, or merely by the glow of her great street lamps, called "the pearl necklace," which, by the way, form the footlights in the great stage setting at the entrance to the harbor.

You must shop downtown, on the Avenida Rio Branco and on the other wide streets of the city, but also in the narrow shady streets of old Rio, and by all means you must turn out of the bustle of Rio Branco into the cool distinction of Rua Ouvidor, the Sala de Visitas (drawing-room) of Rio and paradise of the pedestrian, where vehicles are prohibited after the morning hours and where social Rio prome-



nades in peace and security. Here drop into some curio shops and see exquisite things from all over Brazil, and have a cup of real Brazilian coffee in one of the cafés. Also downtown, near the beach, is the market, which will furnish an interesting view of a number of things, including parrots and monkeys, and exotic contributions from here and there.

A few points of interest out of the many in and about Rio are: The famous Botanical Gardens, founded in colonial times by John VI, where stands the ancient palm-tree, ancestor of all the royal palms in Brazil, which he planted; the Instituto Oswaldo Cruz for biological research, one of the most famous in the world; the National Museum in the old Imperial Palace, where Dom Pedro II was born; the presi-



THE YPIRANGA MUSEUM, SÃO PAULO

The museum, one of the fine buildings of the "Coffee Metropolis," was erected on the historic hill where Dom Pedro I proclaimed Brazilian independence, September 7, 1822.

dential palaces at Cattete and Guanabara, and other public buildings; and Candelaria Church, one of the finest in South America.

Ferry across the bay to the interesting old town of Nictheroy, capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro, and, if possible, go by train to the fashionable summer resort, Petropolis, up among the hills, and get a close view of the Organ Mountains; or go to Therezopolis or Novo Friburgo. A long day's journey into the interior will take you to Bello Horizonte, capital of Minas Geraes—modern, beautiful, delightful. And you will be very near that deepest gold mine in the world, Morro Velho, for Minas Geraes is a State of gold and diamonds and great mineral wealth.

From Bello Horizonte turn back and travel south to Sao Paulo, the great industrial metropolis and coffee center of Brazil, called the



Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip

#### FISHING BOATS AT PARA

At the mouth of the Amazon, just south of the Equator, lies the progressive city of Pará (Belem), one of the busiest ports of northern Brazil.

Chicago of South America, and capital of the rich and progressive State of Sao Paulo. (There was founded the first permanent colony in Brazil, at Sao Vicente, and there was proclaimed the independence of Brazil on the banks of the Ypiranga. The Ypiranga monument, commemorating this event, stands in the city of Sao Paulo.) You could go by sea from Rio, but a land trip will give you a view of other cities en route and of the vast coffee fields stretching mile on mile along the way. How interesting if you could visit one of those same *fazendas* and see the workings thereof! If possible visit other cities in that industrial and progressive State. See the famous snake farm near Butantan, where serums protecting against snake bites are made. Travel down the fantastic railway to Santos and see the greatest coffee port in the world and its delightful seashore resorts.

From Santos on there still remains quite a length of coast line along the extreme south. Plan a wonderful excursion to this flourishing and progressive section of Brazil, with its delightful climate, huge cattle ranches, fruit orchards, and maté plantations.

It is not too much to hope that in the near future many new and marvelous delights may be added to those now easily available to the traveler in Brazil—among its mountains and plains, its seashores and rivers and falls, its fields and farms and factories, its cities, great and small, with their cultural and educational facilities, and best of all, its people. You will like them. The Brazilian is incurably hospitable and never so happy as when welcoming the stranger within his gates.

## CHILE

JOHN MASEFIELD tells in *Dauber*, his vivid narrative of the sea, how the crew of a sailing vessel brought their craft into the harbor of Valparaiso:

. . . With three times three  
They cheered her moving beauty in, and she  
Came to her berth so noble, so superb;  
Swayed like a queen, and answered to the curb.

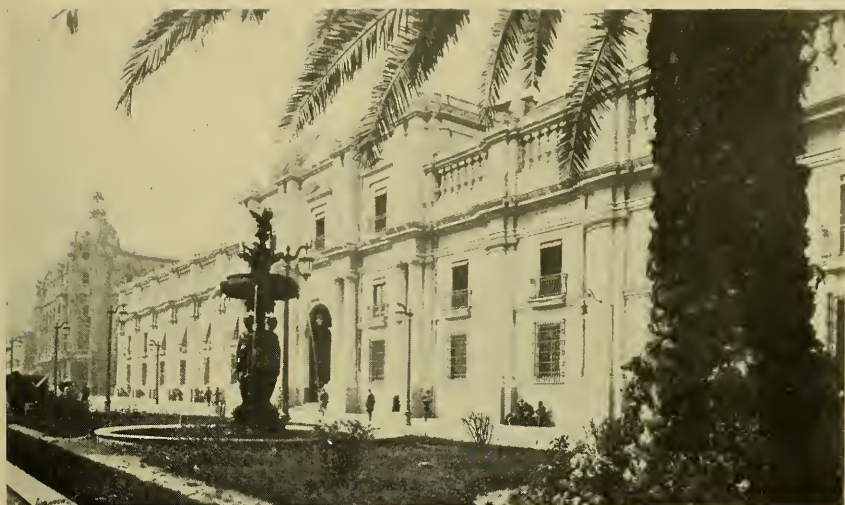
Then in the sunset's flush they went aloft,  
And unbent sails in that most lovely hour,  
When the light gentles and the wind is soft,  
And beauty in the heart breaks like a flower.  
Working aloft they saw the mountain tower,  
Snow to the peak; they heard the launch-men shout;  
And bright along the bay the lights came out.

The last line describes perfectly Whistler's famous *Nocturne* of this city, a painting which now hangs in the Freer Gallery in Washington.

Travelers no longer arrive on the clipper ships with which the ports of Chile were once so familiar, but come by fast steamers or by air. There are few who do not visit Valparaiso, and indeed to many of them the "Valley of Paradise" is the gateway to the Republic. The city possesses a fine deep natural harbor, formerly of strategic, as at present of commercial, importance. After its founding in 1536 by the Spanish officer Juan de Saavedra, it was captured in turn by Drake, Hawkins, Van Noort, and Admiral Núñez, finally passing out of Spanish hands with the birth of the Republic. To-day it stands high among South American ports because of its splendid port works, adequate public services, imposing public buildings, and transportation facilities that link the suburban resorts with the upper and lower cities (one along the shore, the other above it on the hill). Of the neighboring seaside resorts Viña del Mar, where the "Summer White House" is located, is the most fashionable and the most attractive.

Santiago, only three hours away by de luxe express train, is five years younger than its seaport; it was founded by Pedro Valdivia at the base of the eminence now known as Santa Lucia Hill, a useful natural defense against hostile natives. As time has passed, the rising tide of the city has entirely surrounded Santa Lucia, until now the hill lifts its green head above a sea of roofs which extends far in all directions. The story of the hill sheds light on interesting events of people that have been connected with it. In 1849, for example,





LA MONEDA, THE PRES-  
IDENTIAL PALACE,  
SANTIAGO

One of the handsome buildings in the progressive Chilean capital is the residence of the President, built in 1786-1805 to house the mint, from which the palace derives its Spanish name.



A COLONIAL WROUGHT-  
IRON GATEWAY IN  
SANTA LUCIA PARK

One of the beauty spots of Santiago is a former barren hill that has been converted into a park, with numerous terraces, driveways, gardens, and fountains. From the crown a superb panoramic view of the city can be obtained.



Lieut. James Melville Gilliss, of the United States Navy, set up not only the first astronomical observatory in Chile, but the southernmost institution of the kind in the world up to that date. Later in the century the famous Chilean historian, Benjamín Vicuña Mackenna, while Governor of Santiago, had the rocky cone converted into a park for the pleasure of the people; in a chapel on the side of the hill the remains of Vicuña Mackenna fittingly rest. The visitor to-day enjoys the shaded paths and handsome monuments and, from the summit, the extensive view of the wide plain in which Santiago is situated and of the Andes towering in the east. Nor is it only a pleasant breathing space in the heart of a great city, for science yet dwells there in the National Observatory of Chile and the subterranean seismographical observatory.

Santiago still retains many colonial monuments. The President's Palace is the former Mint, enlarged and modernized; in its patios, simple yet dignified, are delicate ironwork gates, handsome fountains, and well-proportioned stairways. The cathedral, which occupies the site of the first church erected in Chile, a wooden structure built by Valdivia, contains treasures of historic and intrinsic value. The telegraph office occupies the building where, until recently, the Governor of the Province had his office.

But more striking than any past grandeur are the evidences of modern progress. The capitol and other imposing public edifices, excellent hotels, and substantial office buildings adorn the city. The Avenida de las Delicias, a wide, shady boulevard, is a succession of little parks bordered by fine residences and business houses. The handsome grand stand at the popular race track draws many spectators. And to the visitor interested in other than mere sight-seeing, although there is here a rich field, Santiago offers a varied feast.

For more than a century, since the days of Andrés Bello, that pioneer of international law, Santiago has been known as a cultural center. There are two fine universities, the University of Chile and the Catholic University, and excellent secondary schools; the Government, besides supplying free elementary education, also subsidizes in part many private institutions. The splendid National Library has been enriched by the bequest of the library of the late José Toribio Medina, probably the foremost Americanist and bibliographer of his generation, a modest yet indefatigable worker honored throughout the world. His library contains many valuable source documents for colonial history.

The traveler who reaches Chile by boat from the north, stops a few hours in Valparaíso and Viña del Mar, spends his allotted time in Santiago, and proceeds to Buenos Aires by train or plane, or takes the reverse trip, has seen much of interest. Traveling by rail he crosses the Andes by a tunnel under Uspallata Pass. At the nearest



LAKE TODOS LOS SANTOS

Such views as this of Lake "All Saints" as seen from Peulla have given the lake region of Chile the name of the "Switzerland of America."



ZAPALLAR BEACH

North of Valparaíso on the Pacific coast is exclusive Zapallar, which amply justifies its description of a "garden converted into a beach resort."

station he may alight to make a short excursion to the famous Christ of the Andes, which commemorates the peaceful settlement in 1902 of the boundary dispute between Chile and Argentina. These two countries at the same time concluded the first of all treaties for the limitation of naval armament. The air route from Santiago to Mendoza or Buenos Aires is well patronized; the panorama of majestic peaks, including Aconcagua, the highest on the American Continent, is indescribably impressive.

Nevertheless, the tourist who goes no farther south than Santiago has missed much that is typically Chilean if he omits a visit to some of the chief agricultural sections and to the lake region, and, if it be summer, the trip from Puerto Montt to Magallanes.

To reach the lake country the traveler first goes by railway through the richest agricultural section of the country. Improved means of transportation have made citizens of the United States well aware of the high quality of Chilean grapes and melons; the visitor finds that on their native heath other fruits of the country are as varied and as succulent as one could wish. He stops, if his be a leisurely trip, at cities en route which, while smaller than the capital, are no less interesting. The lakes lie near the Argentine border, amid mountains less rugged but greener and more friendly than the loftier Andes near Santiago. Each of the lakes has its own beauty; Lake Llanquihue offers a splendid view of the symmetrical volcano Osorno, the counterpart of Fujiyama, and Todos los Santos is also known as Esmeraldas on account of its vivid green waters. From the latter the traveler may cross the Perez Rosales Pass into Argentina, visit the Argentine lake district, and travel in comfort to Buenos Aires, happy in the knowledge that, although the trip was much longer, it was no more expensive and the returns in beauty and interest were manyfold.

Still another aspect of Chilean life is seen by the visitor who makes the enchanting journey southward from Puerto Montt, preferably in one of the smaller steamers that can go close to the shore. Through winding channels between the isle-dotted Pacific and the fjord-indented coast he passes, and as one goes south the soft green of the heavily timbered shores gives way to the shimmer of ice. The end of his journey is Magallanes, the center of a flourishing sheep industry and the southernmost city on the globe. Who has not thrilled since his school days to the name of Magellan, who made his venturesome journey through this strait more than four hundred years ago! It is but justice that the city once called "Punta Arenas" should now bear his name in its Spanish form. Those who seek little-beaten paths should bear in mind this trip toward the Antarctic Circle, past verdant or glacier-covered mountains, for theirs will be a richly rewarding experience.



# COLOMBIA

By ENRIQUE CORONADO SUÁREZ

*Assistant Editor, Boletín de la Unión Panamericana*

THE Republic of Colombia offers many varied attractions to the tourist who travels in search of new and strange sights and places of rest and quiet. Its privileged geographic position, with a coastline along both the Atlantic and the Pacific, its diversity of climates, and the beauty of its countryside have always attracted the many travelers who have landed on its shores.

From the first moment that the tourist sets foot on Colombian territory he views with delight cities and towns in which there yet remains an atmosphere of ancient Spain and a vision of "La Gran Colombia" in the days of its valiant battles for independence. He will receive vivid impressions and recall bygone centuries upon visiting the historic citadel of Cartagena de Indias, at the seaport of that name. Cartagena, surrounded by all manner of tropical vegetation and forests, might be considered a triumphal arch through which to enter Colombian territory. The "heroic city," as it is known by Colombian citizens, was founded in the early decades of the sixteenth century, and from earliest times was the constant objective of pirates and buccaneers. The city is encompassed by mighty walls and bulwarks, which preserve the atmosphere of Spanish colonial days. These same fortifications offered a stubborn resistance in 1585 to the onslaughts of Sir Francis Drake, who finally took the town.

From Cartagena the traveler may go by sea to Barranquilla, about 100 miles to the north along the Caribbean coast; this, the most important commercial seacoast city in the Republic, was founded in 1729.

Because of its rapid growth, its advantageous location, and its active and flourishing commerce, Barranquilla has often been called the New Orleans of Colombia. The founding and rapid development of Barranquilla was due to the fact that at this point about half of Colombia's entire foreign trade is transacted. The city, located at the northern end of Colombia's agricultural "valley of plenty," draws from the vast Magdalena River basin great quantities of coffee and other agricultural products, and sends in return finished goods from every corner of the world. Barranquilla has a population of 140,000 and is amply provided with accommodations, including a golf course, to suit all classes of visitors. One of the recent additions to the city of which the inhabitants are justly proud is a new and modern hotel from whose windows may be glimpsed the river, the sea, and the





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#### OLD SPANISH FORTIFICATIONS AT CARTAGENA

The historic city of Cartagena is encircled with massive fortresses and walls, erected during the sixteenth century as defenses against the buccaneers of that time.



#### THE HIGHWAY-TO-THE-SEA

An ambitious piece of engineering will bring Medellín, capital of the Department of Antioquia, and the second largest city of Colombia, into communication with the Caribbean Sea.

snowcapped mountains. Barranquilla also possesses the most modern waterworks in the country.

Of all the capitals of the South American Republics, that of Colombia used to be one of the most secluded from the outer world, but now it is only a day from the coast by air. Though Bogota may be reached by rail from the Pacific coast, it is usually approached by water and rail or by air from Barranquilla. The trip by water is a most unusual one, and provides constant interest to the passenger. Since the river is often low in certain places, the boats are similar in design to those used in the shallow rivers of the midwest United States—sometimes referred to as “wet-grass” boats, it having jokingly been said that they could be navigated on wet grass. In making the journey of more than 600 miles to Bogota one passes through purely tropical country covered with virgin forests and heavy luxuriant vegetation.

En route the traveler may stop at Puerto Berrio and thence go by rail to Medellin, the second city and most important industrial center of the Republic. The city occupies a most favorable position, lying as it does in a beautiful valley in the Cordillera Central, as the Colombians call the central mountain chain traversing the country. The climate around Medellin is summerlike in its softness, and since the city is over 5,000 feet above sea level, there is a continuous feeling of freshness in the air. It is the chief mining and coffee center of the country, and there are scores of large factories located in and near the city. It abounds in all forms of amusements familiar to visitors from the north. One may find facilities for golf, tennis, swimming, and polo, while for additional pleasure there are modern theaters.

Returning to Puerto Berrio on the Magdalena, the traveler resumes his journey to Bogota, nearly 9,000 feet above sea level in the cordilleras of northern South America.

Although the city has made remarkable strides in modernization and improvement in recent years, Bogota still retains a wealth of historic memories of the days when it was a vice-royal seat in the proud Spanish colonial empire, and when the valiant Colombians battled for the freedom of their country from the domination of Spain. The city stands on a plateau over which the mountains of the eastern range of the Andes seem to hover. It was founded in 1538, being named Santa Fe de Bogota from the resemblance of its countryside to that surrounding Santa Fe, founded near Granada, Spain, by Ferdinand and Isabella, and from Bacata, the name of an Indian tribe of the locality.

The houses are low for the most part, with eaves projecting over the street. One may see many homes where iron bars protect the windows and plants and flowers adorn them, reminding the visitor of the yet unspoiled sections of Cordoba and Seville. Bogota has a



### BOGOTA, COLOMBIA

Situated on a plateau 9,000 feet high, Bogota has a wealth of historic associations and traditions of the revolutionary era.



Courtesy of Raimundo Rivas

### COLONIAL BOGOTA

Notwithstanding the encroachment of modern buildings throughout the city, Bogota still retains much of its colonial atmosphere. The statue in this picturesque corner is of Rufino José Cuervo, philologist and grammarian.



plentiful share of imposing buildings of both the old and the new age, luxurious hotels, fine theaters, beautiful parks, and excellent museums.

A few miles to the south of Bogota one may visit by rail the Falls of Tequendama in the Bogota River, properly ranked among the greatest cataracts of the world; they were regarded with reverence and considered sacred by the Chibcha Indians, former inhabitants of that part of Colombia. The waters of this river, which flow so unhurriedly through the plains below, here are virtually squeezed to a width of less than 100 feet in sheer, mad flight before they plunge almost 450 feet to the rocks beneath. The water changes to foam as it pours over the cliff, and numerous rainbows are clearly visible, while continuous clouds of bluish-white mist rise from the abyss.

The salt mines of Zipaquira, a few miles north of the capital, are also worthy of a visit. These mountains of salt, which extend for many miles, have been exploited for centuries, first by the Spaniards and then by the Colombian Government, but as yet practically no impression has been made upon them. One enters the mines through wide doors, and goes down long passages to immense white galleries, which gleam and scintillate from the electric lights. The effect is that of a vast cathedral with endless naves upheld by colossal arches.

About 75 miles from Bogota are located what are probably the only mines to-day producing emeralds; these are found embedded in the green quartz of the world-famous Muzo mines. It was here that more than four centuries ago the Spanish conquerors found the natives already searching for the gems. It is said that the *conquistadores*, upon securing power, forced the Indians to enter the mines and kept them there until they produced the precious green stones, giving them food only when they came out with emeralds.

Much interesting territory may be covered if the tourist leaves Colombia by the Pacific coast. In his travels westward from Bogota, he will cross the valley of the Cauca River, an extremely rich, fertile, and picturesque section of the Republic.

Cali, founded in 1536, will be visited en route. This city is situated on the seaward edge of the western cordillera, at an altitude of about 3,000 feet, and is connected by rail with Buenaventura, the most important Colombian port on the Pacific. Other cities which may be included and which give various pictures of Colombian life, industries, and people, are Palmira, in an important agricultural region; Cartago, notable for the production of cacao, coffee, and tobacco; Buga, an old colonial city a short distance north of Palmira, now an agricultural center; and Popayan, founded in 1536, and located in a section where gold, silver, platinum, and copper are found.

In short, it is evident that a journey through Colombia is one of constant interest. Lying close to the Equator, it provides tropical and subtropical climes and lands, and its long history endows the works of man with special interest.



## COSTA RICA

THE early Spanish conquerors were wholly justified in bestowing the name of Costa Rica (Rich Coast) upon a picturesque region of Central America. This land, which to-day is the independent Republic of Costa Rica, is bounded by Nicaragua on the north and by Panama on the south. The Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean bathe its eastern and western shores, thereby affording ports of entry and facilitating maritime intercourse with other parts of the world.

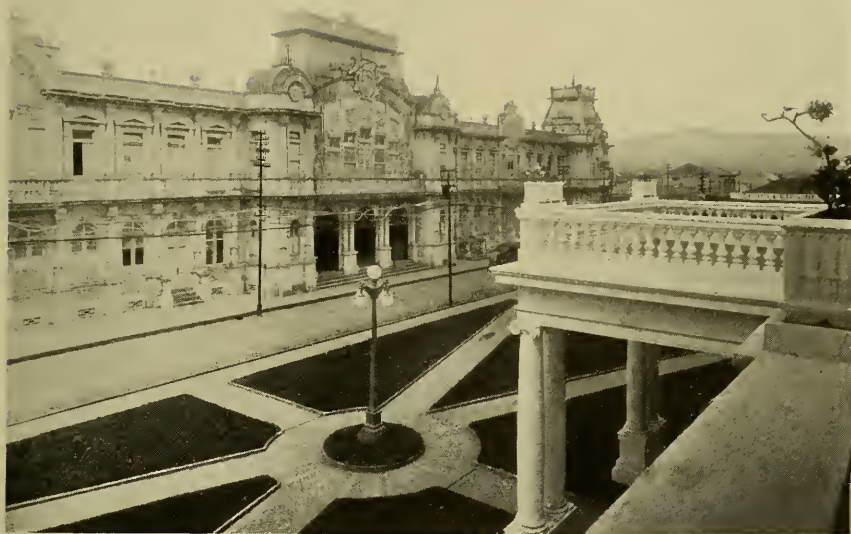
Geographically, Costa Rica offers numerous and varied attractions to the tourist. There are vast and fertile fruit lands, beautiful productive valleys, and high mountains whose noble peaks invite mountain climbers to numerous treks through tropical wonderlands. The highest mountains are in the western part of the country, and from the watershed—also in western Costa Rica—there flow many streams to either ocean. Naturally, these waterfalls and sylvan trails are alluring to the traveler who is willing to leave city haunts and commune with nature in her wildest and most beautiful forms.

Costa Rica's leading ports, Limon, on the Caribbean, and Puntarenas, on the Pacific, are connected by railway; from either city the journey to the capital, San Jose, is through varied and attractive country. From Limon the distance is 104 miles; from Puntarenas the 68-mile route is shorter, but the climb is over a much heavier grade. Observation cars are attached to trains and the traveler enjoys some of the most beautiful scenery in the world. At numerous stations along the line native vendors of fruit, especially of delicious pineapples, ply an active trade. Now and then the train halts at a small station where passengers may obtain meals or refreshments; at such stations in this, the home of the banana, the tourist should sample a native by-product—the griddle cakes made of banana meal. This meal is obtained by cutting the banana into strips, drying them in the sun, and then grinding and sifting them; this process yields about 25 per cent pure meal.

At points along the railway splendid views may be obtained of some of the country's volcanoes, those awe-inspiring natural wonders which attract tourists in so many parts of the world.

Twelve miles from the capital on the Limon route lies Cartago, the former capital of the country, to-day a small city in the center of a productive agricultural region. Arrived at the capital, the traveler is delighted with the comforts of the new hotel, a fine structure provided with all modern conveniences. With this as headquarters the visitor may engage a motor car and make use of the new roads of the upland region of the republic.

The city of San Jose, whose population numbers more than 56,000, possesses many attractions. Its public parks are numerous and in



Courtesy of John M. Keith

#### FINE BUILDINGS IN SAN JOSÉ

The attractive Costa Rican capital boasts a delightful climate. Upper: This handsome building houses the post and telegraph offices. Lower: The Union Club is the scene of numerous gatherings of the San José élite.



FALLS OF THE CARACHO AND POAS RIVERS

The waterfalls and other natural beauties of Costa Rica are of particular allure to the visitor.

them trees and flowers grow in profusion; some are adorned with band stands where, at frequent intervals, Costa Rican musicians render soul-inspiring music. It is then that the people turn out in numbers and the stranger has an opportunity of mingling with the populace.

Among the fine structures of the capital is the National Theater, one of the most beautiful playhouses of the Americas. Other buildings in San Jose worthy of mention are the Cathedral, Raventos Theater, the Union Club, the bank of Costa Rica, and the Temple of Music. The Morazán, Central, and España are three attractive parks; the statue to the memory of Simón Bolívar is a notable piece of modern sculpture. La Sabana, on the outskirts of the city is a vast and level area, which contains an aviation field, golf courses, athletic tracks, tennis courts, and various other facilities for amusement and recreation.

A short distance from San Jose, and towering high above the country, stands the great volcano Poas. From the village of San Pedro nearby horses are available for the ascent, a trip always popular



with the venturesome tourist. The entire journey is one of interest and from the summit, if the day be clear, a wonderful panorama is spread before the eyes. There are virgin forests, cane fields, coffee plantations, haciendas, picturesque villages and other sights typical of this Rich Coast.

In another direction, easily reached by motor car from San Jose, is Cartago, standing on the slopes of the great volcanic cone of Irazu, which rises 11,200 feet above sea level. From Cartago it is a 6-hour horseback journey up the side of this great cone. Once the feat is accomplished, the traveler feels well repaid for strenuous exertion. On clear days the Pacific Ocean is visible and in the opposite direction



DRYING COFFEE IN COSTA RICA

Of great interest to the foreigner are the various processes in preparing the country's chief product for market.

the Caribbean stretches into space. Then, too, Irazu pours forth smoke and at times flame, a terrifying reminder of the marvelous structure of the coast and of its internal heat and gasses. It is a never-to-be-forgotten wonder.

Music and flowers are to be enjoyed all over the country. Under the royal palms of Limon, and amid the countless blossoms of the tropics, the military band in the evening draws the people to the central plaza; among the promenaders may be counted citizens of many lands. Likewise, in San Jose, Cartago, Heredia, Alajuela, and elsewhere the dreamy music of Latin America may be heard alike in public park or in private patio to the delight of native and stranger.



## CUBA

THE thousands of travelers who annually seek new and varied lands to visit will find much of historic interest, picturesqueness and gayety in Cuba. That sunny isle, so aptly called the "Pearl of the Antilles," beckons with the lure of azure skies, enchanting panoramas, and the romance that is linked with historic events. Indeed, Christopher Columbus when he first stepped upon its fertile shores on October 28, 1492, exclaimed: "It is the most beautiful land that man's eyes have ever beheld." And since that time Cuba's attractions have been sung by countless poets and writers.

The tourist's first introduction to Cuba is generally via Habana, the capital, which was founded 1519. As the steamer glides past famous Morro Castle and the city is in plain view it is difficult to realize that Habana is but 90 miles from Key West, since the atmosphere is distinctly "foreign." The blending of the old and the new is particularly evident in the older section of the city, where narrow streets, overhanging balconies, heavy doors and iron-barred windows are reminiscent of Moorish and Spanish architecture. But these narrow streets resound with the noises of modern city life—the shouting of newsboys, the clang of street-car bells, and the shriek of automobile horns and fire-engine sirens. And it is along these same streets that many of the exclusive shops are to be found.

To those who would delve into the past, Habana offers a wealth of historic lore. There is the massive old Cathedral that has nobly withstood the ravages of time. El Templete, dear to the heart of every Cuban, commemorates the site where the first Mass was celebrated in Habana in 1519. It was from the Castillo de la Fuerza, the city's oldest stone structure, that the intrepid De Soto went forth. There he said farewell to his tearful wife, Doña Isabel, who never saw her husband again. From its portals Hernando Cortés is said to have embarked for the conquest of the land of Montezuma; from there Ponce de León set out in search of the mythical Fountain of Youth; this was the point of departure for the expeditions that took Balboa and Pizarro to Darien and beyond. Morro Castle owes its existence to the dreaded Sir Francis Drake, who threatened to take the port. The Spanish monarch, Philip II, accordingly ordered the construction of a harbor defense that would withstand any pirate attack. The heavily buttressed stronghold was completed in 1597 and on many occasions protected the city against the attacks of marauding buccaneers. It stands like a grim sentinel, and its medieval appearance is in marked contrast to the modern liners that slip past its ancient



Courtesy of the Department of Public Works of Cuba

### THE CAPITOL, HABANA

The magnificent Cuban capitol is not only one of the show places in Habana but one of the finest buildings of its class in the world.



### THE NATIONAL CASINO

A popular rendezvous after nightfall for pleasure seekers of Habana is the exclusive Gran Casino Nacional in the suburb of Marianao.

walls into the inner harbor. No less imposing is Morro's companion fortification, the Cabañas Fortress, another reminder of the romantic days of bold *conquistadores*, treasure-laden galleons and roving corsairs.

Habana is also a city of gay boulevards, magnificent buildings, beautiful churches, fine residences, and splendid hotels. Outstanding among the public edifices is the recently completed Capitol, erected at a cost of more than \$17,000,000. An interesting tour of the city includes, besides a visit to the Capitol, a drive down the popular Paseo de Martí (remembered by many as the Prado), along the



Courtesy of the Department of Public Works of Cuba

#### ENTRANCE TO MATANZAS, CUBA

About 54 miles east of Habana, on the Central Highway, is the city of Matanzas which, with the near-by Bellamar caves and the beautiful Yumuri Valley, is well worth visiting.

Malecón Drive to the attractive Vedado suburb, noted for its palatial homes, out the Avenue of the Presidents and the Avenida Carlos Manuel de Céspedes to the famous beach at Marianao and the exclusive Habana Yacht Club. Outside the city in the same general direction are several of the newer residential subdivisions, the Habana Country Club, with its picturesque golf course, the Casino, the Jockey Club and race track. By day and by night during the "season" this playground of the Caribbean is the rendezvous of throngs of well-dressed people from all over the Americas and the continent as well. So much for a glimpse of life in cosmopolitan Habana. But to know Habana is not to know the whole of Cuba.



The new central highway affords an excellent opportunity to become better acquainted with the interior of the country. This 700-mile ribbon of concrete traverses almost the entire length of the island and is a model of road construction. Leaving Habana early in the morning, the motorist may drive leisurely along this palm-lined highway, and arrive at Matanzas about noon. This quaint old city was for many years a thriving sugar port, but the commerce that formerly moved through its warehouses now finds its way to Habana or to Cardenas, farther along the coast. After luncheon the afternoon may be spent in exploring the famous Bellamar Caves, a few miles from the city, and in a visit to the Hermitage of Montserrat. This high point affords a splendid panoramic view of the city and the beautiful palm-dotted valley of the Yumuri. Next morning the trip is resumed and during the course of the day stops are made at Santa Clara, Sancti Spiritus, one of the oldest cities, and Ciego de Avila. This is an exceedingly rich agricultural region and on either side of the road fields of waving sugarcane alternate with stretches of fine tobacco land. Occasionally, the tall smokestacks of a sugar central loom into view and here and there we catch a glimpse of a lonely *bohío*, or palm-thatched cabin.

As the traveler enters the Province of Camaguey, the country changes to one of gently rolling hills and fertile valleys with the blue peaks of the Trinidad Range in the distance. Tobacco fields give way to the grazing lands of cattle ranches. An overnight stop is made in the city of Camaguey at the popular hotel that was once a barracks. This delightful inn has endeared itself to all who have had the good fortune to stay there. Its large, airy rooms, charming patios, tropical surroundings and quiet atmosphere exert a spell from which it is difficult to escape.

In order that the mountain scenery of the remaining 200 miles to Santiago may be enjoyed by day, an early morning start is suggested for the last lap of the journey. But if there is a moon, the later the start the better. The road winds through one of the most enchanting regions of the island and the ever-changing panorama of lofty mountains and fertile valleys is one of rare beauty. Bathed in moonlight it is a veritable paradise.

On the way, the traveler has an opportunity of making brief visits to the towns of Guaimaro, where the first constitutional convention of Cuba met; Holguín, an important sugar center; Bayamo, founded in 1513; Baire, where the rallying cry was given that launched the War of Independence; and Palma Soriano, the historic town where Jose Martí, Cuba's national hero, died.

Finally the car descends the easy grades that lead to the natural bowl in which nestles the port of Santiago, which is the second largest city



of the island. Santiago, like Habana, is rich in historical background and many of its buildings bear testimony of great antiquity. But the city is best known as having been the main field of action during the Spanish-American War. San Juan Hill, El Caney, Siboney, Morro Castle are all familiar names. It was the Battle of San Juan Hill that resulted in the defeat of the Spanish forces and marked the downfall of Spanish rule in Cuba. This famous battle ground is a short drive from the heart of the city and on the way the tourist passes the towering old ceiba tree, in whose shade the papers were signed for the surrender of the fort on July 16, 1898.

Sightseeing in Cuba is not a matter of a few hours or a few days. To visit that beautiful isle is to wish to linger there; to leave its hospitable shores is but to return.



Courtesy of the Department of Public Works of Cuba

#### A VIADUCT IN ORIENTE PROVINCE

In the Eastern Province, the Central Highway traverses one of the most mountainous and picturesque regions of the island.

## THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

IN the Caribbean Sea, equidistant from Florida and the Panama Canal, lies the island known as Haiti in very ancient times, and as La Española or Hispaniola during the days of Spain's colonial glory. The island is shared by two separate and completely independent countries, distinct in origin, language, and customs. To the east lies the Dominican Republic, or Santo Domingo, as it is often (but not officially) known, occupying two-thirds of the island's expanse, while the western section is taken up by the Republic of Haiti.

The capital city of this charming little country may rightfully be termed the outpost of European civilization in the New World, for it is the first permanent European settlement in the Western Hemisphere. To this island came Christopher Columbus, and here lived his brothers, Diego and Bartolomé, and here ruled his eldest son, Diego, first governor of Santo Domingo.

On entering the Ozama River, upon which the capital, Santo Domingo, is located, a large tower comes into view—the Homage Tower, it is called. Does one not thrill to learn that it was here the Great Navigator was imprisoned, and that from here he was sent back to Spain in chains? Does it not cause one's blood to run a little faster to learn that from the same pole on the Homage Tower from which now flies the Dominican flag, the banner of Spain proudly waved, from the founding of the city on St. Dominic's day in 1496, until the country gained her independence? A short distance further up the river, and about halfway up the hillside, are clearly visible the walls of the ancient governor's palace, commenced in 1510 by Diego Columbus, oldest son of the Great Navigator, while in the walls of the Fortress of San Gerónimo are still embedded cannon balls fired from vessels under Sir Francis Drake's command.

Entering the city through the San Diego Gates, which are near the castle built by Diego Columbus, one may see the ruins of the Church and Convent of San Francisco, whose walls plainly show the ravages of nature during the 400 years of their existence. From here by the street called Isabel la Católica, one may go direct to Columbus Park, or Parque Colón, as it so much more appropriately sounds in Spanish, with its imposing statue of the Discoverer.

Turning southward, the visitor gazes upon the Cathedral of Santo Domingo, a true symbol of the proud, helmeted Spain of Philip II's time, transported by some magic means to the Western World. The cathedral, lacking a few years of passing the four hundred mark, has



Courtesy of Sumner Welles

#### THE COLUMBUS MONUMENT AND CATHEDRAL, SANTO DOMINGO

Facing Columbus Plaza in the old section of Santo Domingo is the Cathedral, the first erected in the New World, wherein stands the imposing tomb of the Discoverer. After the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse is constructed, the tomb will be removed to that monument.



#### RUINS OF THE HOUSE OF COLUMBUS

Only the walls now remain of the palatial home which Diego Columbus, eldest son of Christopher, built between 1509 and 1514 on the banks of the Ozama River. This detail shows the walls of the circular stairway and the footings for the balcony floor.



literally turned yellow with age, its stones taking on a peculiarly distinctive golden hue in the early morning light.

The market place on a busy day should not be overlooked. The variety of goods displayed even on one stand is worthy of comment. Fish from the sea and vegetables from the country are sold next door to neckties and handkerchiefs made in Santo Domingo, tinware from Philadelphia, coconuts and charcoal. Further on is a collection of leather goods, harness, and stirrups jumbled with pieces of embroidery. To wander from one booth to another is a rare treat, with a surprise in store at every glance.



Courtesy of Félix M. Pérez Sánchez

#### ON THE ROAD TO BOCA CHICA

The beautiful and popular Boca Chica beach is a pleasant drive about half an hour from Santo Domingo.

Other attractions are the gleaming beaches and crystal clear water, which offer inducements to the bather that can scarcely be refused. Furthermore, the waters surrounding the island yield a brand of big game fishing which will produce an ecstatic smile on the face of the true angler, and there are ample facilities for golf and tennis.

From Santo Domingo three modern highways stretch to separate sections of the country; the first toward the north, the richest agricultural region, to Monte Christi and Puerto Plata, passing through La Vega, Moca, and Santiago, the last-named being the second city in commercial importance. Toward the east a good highway extends as far as Higüey, slightly over 100 miles, passing through San Pedro de Macoris, Hato Mayor, and El Seybo, while another road branches



off at El Seybo leading to La Romana. The road westward, ending at the Haitian frontier, passes through Bani, birthplace of Máximo Gómez, liberator of Cuba, and Azua, an important agricultural center, before reaching Comendador on the boundary line. From the frontier to Port-au-Prince, capital of the neighboring republic of Haiti, there is also an excellent motor highway, the total distance between the two capital cities being about 225 miles. Over these various highways come motor trucks laden with sugar, cacao, and coffee for export.

Especial notice has been directed to the Dominican Republic in recent years due to the publicity in connection with the projected



Courtesy of Félix M. Pérez Sánchez

#### A MODEL PUBLIC SCHOOL

The Department of Education has constructed various schools of this type containing from 8 to 12 classrooms.

Columbus Memorial, which is to be erected at Santo Domingo in the form of a monumental lighthouse. The design has already been selected, the choice being made in the largest architectural competition ever held.

In step with modern trends, and in accordance with the natural advantages of the country's geographical location, emphasis in the construction of the memorial will be directed toward its appearance from the air, and to its practical use as a beacon for the guidance of air navigators—as this island is one day destined to become the cross-roads of air travel in the Western Hemisphere—a fitting tribute to the site selected by the Great Discoverer as the first permanent settlement in the New World.

## ECUADOR

**E**CUADOR is, undoubtedly, a country meant for tourists, to whom it offers picturesque scenery and the beauty of cities that have been cultural centers almost since the arrival of the Spaniards in the New World.

In 1534 the city of Quito was founded by the Spaniards. Shortly afterward the construction of various religious edifices was begun. The first of these, the church of El Belen, still stands, a monument to the memory of men who could be ruthless conquerors one day and devout worshippers the next. It is almost unbelievable that in a town made up of a few hundred people, many of whom lived in humble huts, a Franciscan convent should have been erected which even to-day is considered the largest ever built for the order in the whole world and which for several centuries was paramount among the buildings of Quito. In a school connected with the convent the Indians were taught not merely the rudiments of agriculture, but also the construction of agricultural implements. What is more amazing, they not only were given an elementary education, but had the opportunity to study the fine arts, such as painting, sculpture, and music. One of the Indians taught there made several corrections to the work of a famous Spanish musician, suggestions accepted by the composer. The first organ used in the convent was constructed by an Indian pupil of the Franciscan school.

Artistic culture in Quito, so auspiciously begun, flourished throughout the colonial era. To the city came artists of note, mostly of Spanish or Flemish origin. The natives and these teachers produced numerous works of art, many of which, in the company of those imported from the Old World, may still be admired in the magnificent churches and convents then erected. The works of Ecuadorean artists are to be found in great numbers in many American countries and in Europe. From 1779 to 1787, a brief eight years, 264 boxes containing paintings and statuary in wood were shipped abroad through the port of Guayaquil.

Quito is now modern, in every sense of the word. An excellent railway connects it with Guayaquil, its seaport. The city has fine, up-to-date (and inexpensive) hotels. The streets are well paved and filled with automobiles; the traffic problem is increased by the donkeys and llamas of the Indians coming to town to sell their wares. Commerce flourishes, and many showcases in the larger shops offer, besides the finest of so-called Panama hats, which are really made in Ecuador, imported goods of various kinds; mechanical appliances from the United States, fine textiles from England, perfumes from Paris . . . But colonial traditions have been carefully preserved,

and the city still savors of days gone by. The streets, albeit well kept, are narrow and winding, many of the houses have the gentle patina of the centuries, and all parks are constructed in Spanish style. It is hard to understand how such a metropolis could have been built in an isolated valley, 9,375 feet above sea level. Travel in the old days must have been undertaken by supermen.

The journey from the seaport to the capital is now easily accomplished in two days, and the railway connecting the two cities is one of the marvels of modern engineering. It rises to an altitude of 11,841 feet, and runs through mountains, gorges, tunnels, over 390 bridges, and by the side of such volcanic giants as Chimborazo



INDEPENDENCE PLAZA, QUITO

Quito, the capital of Ecuador, has much to please the foreign visitor: Beautiful and historic buildings, magnificent colonial churches, and all the conveniences of a modern city.

(20,696 feet), Altar (17,728 feet), and Cotopaxi, a perfect cone (19,493 feet).

Guayaquil has been called the commercial capital of Ecuador. It is a thriving port, situated on the Guayas river, 30 miles inland from the Pacific Ocean, and in a most advantageous position in regard to the Panama Canal. Numerous steamship companies maintain agencies in Guayaquil, which is also served by several air lines. The city has, too, historic memories; it was here that the famous meeting between Bolívar and San Martín took place in 1822. The Daule River, near Guayaquil, has been called by experienced travelers one of the loveliest in the world.

Trains leaving Guayaquil in the morning arrive in Riobamba late in the afternoon. If the traveler wishes, he may reach Quito the same night, by continuing his journey by motor car. If he remains in Riobamba, he will enjoy the marvelous views offered by several





### THE WATERFRONT IN GUAYAQUIL

The port of Guayaquil, at the mouth of the Guayas River, is considered the commercial capital of Ecuador. It is also a historic city, for it was here that Bolivar and San Mart'n had their epochal interview in 1822.



Courtesy of Carlos Manuel Noboa

### SIBAMBE STATION ON THE GUAYAQUIL-QUITO RAILROAD

The appropriate name of the "Devil's Nose" has been given the mountain peak in the background not only because of its peculiar formation but because of the difficulties encountered by engineers in constructing the railroad line which encircles it.





ALTAR OF THE JESUIT CHURCH

Few countries of America can boast such fine examples of colonial art as Ecuador possesses. The façade and the interior of this church in Quito unite to make it an outstanding specimen of early ecclesiastical architecture.

snow-capped, towering volcanoes. Perhaps he will see the weekly fair, held every Saturday and attended by Indians who sell their handicraft novelties at very reasonable prices, before continuing his railway journey to Quito. En route he will pass through Ambato, the garden city of Ecuador, and Machachi, a famous mountain-climbers' rendezvous, well known also for the healing properties of its medicinal water.

Highway development in Ecuador has connected many important regions with the national capital. The tourist may now visit places that are modern in their life and ancient in appearance and tradition. Those who prefer to leave the beaten path may sail, perchance, to the Galápagos Islands, which Darwin found so different, geologically and biologically, from the mainland, that he was led to wonder whether they were fragments of a comet fallen into the ocean. Many readers have enjoyed William Beebe's *Galápagos, World's End*, a delightful description of these islands by another naturalist.

"Ecuador" is Spanish for "equator", that imaginary line so stimulating to the imagination. But the country, while lovely as if in fancy bred, is real and will become a precious possession in the memory of all who visit it.

## EL SALVADOR

EL SALVADOR is the smallest republic on the American continent; yet its area of 13,176 square miles supports a population of nearly a million and a half inhabitants. On few places in the world, however, has nature lavished such rich gifts of soil and climate. From the cones of its smoking volcanoes to the shores of the Pacific Ocean the constant greenness of its well-watered valleys bears evidence to the unflinching fertility of its earth.

To the new arrival, the two most striking features of El Salvador are the volcanoes and the intensive cultivation of the country. The former are evident from far at sea, for near the capital the lofty Izalco, the "Beacon of the Pacific," raises its fire-emitting head and sends forth at regular intervals smoke and burning stones that are visible at a great distance. The volcanic dust often serves as a valuable fertilizer to the *fincas* on which it settles.

Although the mineral resources of the country, which include gold and silver, have been exploited to some extent, the wealth of El Salvador lies in its agriculture. Commercially it is still dependent upon one crop, coffee, for national prosperity; but realizing the dangers inherent in such a situation, the Government has been promoting diversification. While indigo was at one time the leading commodity exported, its importance is decreasing, and sugar is becoming increasingly important, for conditions in the Republic are especially suitable for its production. Interest in stockraising is gaining, with greater attention to the production of high-grade stock. Fruits grow abundantly and in great variety, while maize and *frijoles* provide the staple articles of diet of the mass of the people. In many countries dependent upon a single agricultural commodity for prosperity, the arable land is divided among comparatively few estates. Such is not the case in El Salvador, where small farms are one of the features of the national economy.

San Salvador has suffered from earthquakes many times since its foundation in the early sixteenth century by the *conquistadores*. It is to-day largely a modern city, with well-paved streets and a pure water supply. But although few evidences of its colonial beauty remain, the visitor will enjoy its splendid Government buildings, handsome parks, fine homes, and wealth of tropical flowers. For those interested in sports, the country club offers excellent golf and tennis, and a branch of the Casino will shortly be open at Lake Ilopango, a resort near the capital popular for its swimming and its regattas.

If he has timed his visit to coincide with Holy Week or the fortnight preceding August 6, the traveler will be fortunate enough to see San



Courtesy of R. W. Hebard & Co.

#### SAN SALVADOR SCENES

A city modern in all respects greets the tourist on his arrival in the capital of El Salvador. Upper: Arcades, typical of many cities of the American tropics, face Dueñas Park. Lower: The National Theater is one of the most imposing buildings in San Salvador.





IZALCO VOLCANO

At regular intervals, clouds of smoke are emitted from the crater of Izalco, often called the "Beacon of the Pacific."

Salvador in colorful mood. The celebration in August is gay, the days filled with dancing and merrymaking, the nights vivid with fireworks. The religious fiestas are impressive and interesting.

The visitor who stays long enough to visit other regions of the Republic will be amply repaid. Besides Lake Ilopango, Lake Guija, to the north, and Lake Coatepeque, hidden in the mountains west of the San Salvador-Santa Ana highway, spread their blue waters for his delight. While lingering over the colonial charm of Santa Ana, he may enjoy the delicious local sweets; in Sonsonate he may sample the cream cheeses for which the town is famous, or glimpse cases of Peruvian balsam (the valuable drug which, in spite of its name, is peculiar to El Salvador) on their way to foreign markets; if he penetrates the highlands as far as Ilobasco, he will want to take away with him some of its painted pottery; the textile mills and tobacco factories of San Vicente will introduce him to the industrial activities of the Republic; hammocks and other articles made from henequen may attract him in San Miguel; and at La Union, he may watch the fashioning of objects from the shell of tortoises caught in the Gulf of Fonseca.

In spite of its accented geography, the compact, rectangular Republic of El Salvador has excellent national and international



communications. By water one may arrive at Acajutla, to the north, La Libertad, the nearest port to San Salvador, or La Union, on the Gulf of Fonseca, just across the bay from Honduras. With Acajutla or La Union as a starting place, the visitor may travel by train throughout the length of the nation; if it suits his convenience to leave by the Atlantic, he may continue by rail over the International Railways of Central America (a link in the Pan American Railway), to Puerto Barrios in Guatemala. La Libertad is the chief passenger port, however, and as San Salvador is only 23 miles away, many steamers are in port long enough to allow brief excursions by motor to the capital over the excellent highway. Since 1925 the Republic



THE INTERNATIONAL RAILWAY OF CENTRAL AMERICA

The traveler will find much of interest in the varied regions traversed by the railroad which spans the Republic and provides an outlet on the Caribbean coast at Puerto Barrios, Guatemala.

has been carrying out an ambitious highway program, whereby all parts of the country will be united by good roads. A recent map showing the network of first-class highways now in existence proves that much has already been accomplished. The provincial capitals are now accessible to the capital and to each other, and when the program is completed, many now remote areas will be opened up to commerce and to travel.

Whether he arrive by land, sea, or air and travel through the country by train or motor, whether his stay be long or short, the visitor will take with him from El Salvador pleasant memories of an orderly, industrious people living happily in a beautiful part of the tropics.

## GUATEMALA

IN one of the green parks of Guatemala City is a large relief map of the Republic, with lakes, rivers, and the surrounding oceans full of water. There the inquiring traveler may work out to his own satisfaction the topographical problems overcome in providing means of transportation. He will see how, on the western face of the country, mountains rise sheerly from a narrow strip of coastal plain—Guatemala City, just behind the first and highest barrier, so to speak, is only 75 miles from San José, the principal Pacific port, but in that short distance the railway has to conquer an elevation of 5,000 feet. From the capital eastward there is a longer and less abrupt descent to the Caribbean, where Puerto Barrios, in the land-locked Gulf of Amatique, offers an outlet to the United States and to Europe.

Whether he has arrived from the north or from the south, by land, by sea, or by air, the traveler finds Guatemala City the center from which to make excursions into the past or into the present, according to his temperament. The well-organized Touring Club is doing much to promote travel within the country over the roads which are remarkable feats of engineering with a surprising amount of mileage, when the limited time and funds so far invested in them is taken into consideration.

There are three capitals of Guatemala for the visitor to enjoy. The modern one is little more than 150 years old; its charm, while truly Guatemalan, recalls that of Spain. Antigua, which it replaced after an earthquake in 1773, is only 25 miles away, and the impressive Palace of the Captains General, churches, and ecclesiastical ruins against the superb view of the volcanoes Agua, Fuego, and Acate-nango, are not readily forgotten. Near-by is the ill-fated Ciudad Vieja, which barely survived its founder, for in September, 1541, floods from the volcano carried destruction to the city, including among the victims Doña Beatriz de la Cueva, widow of Don Pedro de Alvarado and the three-days' governor of Guatemala.

No two trips, nor the same trip taken twice, can ever be the same. The volcanoes of Fuego and Agua may dominate the landscape, and give an awe-inspiring, soul-satisfying beauty to the vista from any one of a hundred places; Lake Atitlan, with its 12 Indian villages each named for one of the Apostles, may reflect the symmetrical cones of the guardian volcanoes in its sparkling blue and green waters; colonial churches and monasteries, whether in ruins or reconstructed, and the gold-covered altar pieces reflecting in their surfaces the patina of years, may evoke admiration for an age of religious art; and against



CENTRAL PARK, GUATEMALA CITY

The present capital of the Republic was founded in 1776 following the earthquake that all but destroyed the city of Antigua.



LAKE ATITLÁN

Of striking beauty are the Guatemalan lakes, particularly Atitlán with its guardian volcanoes.





ANTIGUA, GUATEMALA

Lying in the shadow of the volcano Agua, the former capital of Guatemala, founded in 1541, is of unusual interest, chiefly because of its numerous impressive ruins.

a background of jungle in the midst of an orderly banana plantation, the Maya remains of Quirigua may testify again to the high civilization of that noble race. These things are permanent, yet across them, giving them a new pattern from one day to the next, lies the color of every-day Indian life, never static, always mobile, like the shadows of a wind-shaken tree on a whitewashed wall. The quetzal, in its scintillating brilliancy of plumage no less than in its love of liberty, so great that none has ever been kept alive in captivity, is truly symbolic of Guatemala.

Variety of color is the outstanding feature of the scene. Other tropical countries have lush green vegetation, purple mountains, houses white, yellow, and blue, blue lakes reflecting the intense sapphire of the southern skies, and iridescent waterfalls, but in few others do the inhabitants contribute so much to give a general effect of kaleidoscopic rainbows. There are still many pure-blooded Indians whose civilization from time immemorial has been agricultural. Each tiny village has its distinctive hand-woven dress, individual in material, cut, design, decorative motives, and method of applying them. To the initiated, strolling through the market place, each costume reveals the abode of its wearer as surely as the tartan divulges the clan. Those living in the higher altitudes use woolen cloth, while in the more temperate zones cotton is more common, although sometimes





A PICTURESQUE ROAD

The beauties of the adjacent country are accessible to the automobile tourist, thanks to the work of the Touring Club in promoting interest in roads.

one garment in a costume may be of one material, another of the other; festive garments are often of silk. Pinks, reds, blues, browns, yellows, greens, purples, black, and white are blended in an infinite number of combinations, while embroidery in silk, cotton, or wool still further contributes to give variety to the effect. In one town the women will wear an elaborate multi-colored *huipil* (a sort of blouse), with long skirts reaching to the ground; in another simple cotton blouses and knee-length skirts are *de rigueur*; in a third the men may wear over their simple white costume a sort of kilt of a plaid material; and in a fourth, the tribal designs woven in the belts give the effect of fine tapestry. Villages that have been lying side by side for generations give no evidence of interfiltration of any details of costume.

Here, as in other tropical lands, agriculture is the chief source of wealth. Yet although Guatemala lies south of the eighteenth parallel, a goodly share of the products of temperate climes may be found within its borders—golden wheat, corn (the basis of the inevitable tortilla) clinging to the steep mountain-side, coffee in plantations where in March and April the fragrant blossoms gleam whitely against the glossy leaves.

The tourist traveling in search of scenery, and his companion interested in wresting from the bafflingly incomplete records of past races the clue to their civilizations, need not part company at the gate of Guatemala. There, as in few places, each will find food for thought and nourishment for his soul.

# HAITI

By FRANCIS SALGADO

*Secretary General, Chamber of Commerce Port-au-Prince*

**A**MID the splendor of the Caribbean Sea, Haiti lifts its luxuriantly wooded slopes as picturesque in their way as any panorama of Switzerland or of Italy. This land of eternal spring has contrived to keep, in spite of tragic hours of political upheaval now happily a thing of the past, its memories of heroism and of glory. Here one may marvel, especially in the north, at the remains of colonial enterprises, and in many places excavations still bring to light pottery made by the Indians who originally peopled the island.

One of the most impressive monuments, which recalls the epic of Haitian independence, is Laferrière Citadel. Built in 1806 by Henri Christophe, a leader of genius, this historic fortress possesses a beautiful though rugged grandeur. It has been called by tourists "the Pyramid of Haiti", and is one of the wonders of America. Crowning the summit of the Bonnet a l' Eveque (Bishop's Hat), and dominating the entire plain which comprises the Departments of the North, the Northwest, and Artibonite, this fortress, more than 3,000 feet above sea level, seems to be the flowering of the mountain crest. The route to the Citadel passes through Milot, a town redolent of the past, where stand, sumptuous even in decay, the ruins of Sans Souci, once the palace of King Christophe.

The Citadel is invisible the entire length of the single trail which turns and twists from Milot on. Suddenly, at the last curve, the traveler sees before him the spur of a bastion, like the prow of a great motionless vessel silhouetted against the infinite blue sky. He can not help stopping short, overcome with astonishment, surprise, and an emotion blent of admiration and awe. He is shaken to the core by the savagely beautiful sight which has burst so unexpectedly into view.

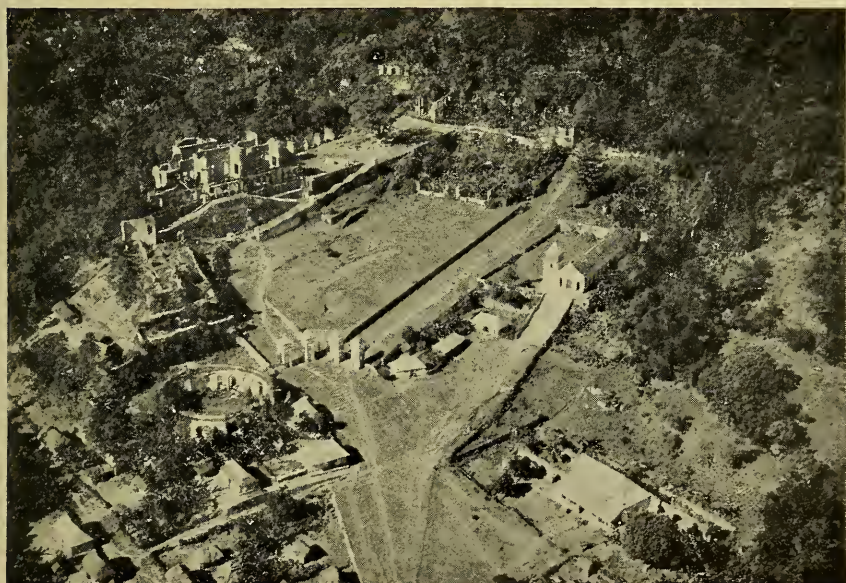
By what superhuman efforts could Christophe, that negro ruler who won respect by sheer genius, create so magnificent and difficult a structure at a time when mechanical means of transportation were unknown, the visitor asks himself in amazement; how was he able to transport all this material to the chosen site, and by what expenditure of effort and skill did he lift to their embrasures the giant cannon still awaiting the hour when destiny shall waken them from their age-long sleep, still lying on their massive mahogany carriages, intact after a century and a quarter?



PORT-AU-PRINCE, CAPITAL OF HAITI

Upper: A wharf. The port is visited regularly by steamers from all parts of the world. Lower: Port-au-Prince as seen from the heights back of the city. The whiteness of its buildings stands out in strong contrast to the luxuriant tropical vegetation of the surrounding hills. The large edifice in the center of the illustration is the National Palace.





#### VESTIGES OF A GLORIOUS PAST

Upper: The Citadel of La Ferrière. About 14 miles south of Cap Haitien, on a mountain peak 2,500 feet above sea level, are the remarkable ruins of the stronghold erected in 1806 by Henri Christophe, the slave who became a king. Lower: The Palace of Sans Souci, near Milot. Here Christophe had his royal court amid great splendor.



The walls, of granite blocks and of immutable brick<sup>1</sup> joined by a special cement harder than rock itself, are more than eight feet thick. They rise without any visible joining above the mountain which supports them, and the precipice falls away almost perpendicularly toward an abyss more than 2,000 feet deep, so that the fortress is only a prolongation of the mountain. The structure is truly cyclopean, and can not but command admiration and amazement.

Those who know the history of Haiti well, and so can evoke the past, find that the ascent to Laferrière Citadel awakes strong emotions and thrilling impressions. It should be visited by all dwellers in America.

In addition to the landscapes of incomparable natural beauty on every hand for his delight, in addition to the cordial hospitality of the inhabitants, always glad to welcome foreigners, the traveler will be pleased by the subtle charm of the simple yet colorful customs of the rural populace. He will enjoy the originality of that negro race which, through a century of groping, has kept intact its French language and civilization.

Well-kept roads now permit travel from one end of the island to the other, and comfortable hotels are available in the larger cities. When modern hotels are also built at Puyboreau, Kenskoff, Pétionville, and the Citadel, Haiti will be an ideal country for tourist travel on account of its moderate climate and its individuality. Only two and a half days from New York, it has already the reputation of being a most delightful winter resort for Americans from the north, and many cruises touch at the lovely harbor of Port-au-Prince.

The first cruise of all was that of Christopher Columbus, who landed in Haiti on December 6, 1492. An early English version of his diary reports: "This is a very large island, says the Admiral, and will undoubtedly measure two hundred leagues in circuit; the land is all cultivated to a high degree, and the towns are probably at a distance back in the country, the inhabitants fleeing at the approach of the strangers, carrying their property with them, and making signals by smoke about the country, as in a state of war. The harbour here [Porte a l' Ecu] is about a thousand paces or quarter of a league wide at the mouth without either bank or shoal, but exceedingly deep at the edge of the shore; it extends within about three thousands paces, with a fine, clear bottom; any ship may enter it and anchor without the least hazard. Here are two small streams, and opposite the mouth of the harbour, several plains the most beautiful in the world, and resembling those of Castile, except that they surpass them. On this account the Admiral named the Island, *Espanola*."<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Sic. Usually called "*Hispaniola*."—EDITOR.

## HONDURAS

THE Republic of Honduras, situated in the heart of Central America, covers an area of some 46,000 square miles and has a population of more than 850,000.

The Honduran landscape, tinged with bright tropical hues, offers everywhere scenes of marvelous beauty. The peaceful lakes, the restless waterfalls formed by mighty rivers, the roads hewn through mountains and forests, the fertile banana plantations, the cities washed by warm seas or sheltered by massive ranges, will leave in the mind of the visitor pleasant and lasting memories.

Tegucigalpa, the capital city of Honduras, is a tropical jewel set on an inland plateau, 3,200 feet above sea level, and guarded by towering mountains. The city has some 50,000 inhabitants, and its climate is healthful and delightful. The Presidential Palace ranks among the notable buildings of Tegucigalpa. It is a large, massive structure, whose heavy walls, towers, and battlements shelter a gardenlike interior courtyard, surrounded by beautiful corridors. Among the important buildings are the Palace of Justice, the University, the National Theater, the Mint, the Bank of Honduras, and others of great architectural merit. The city has many splendid parks and drives. The memory of General Morazán is commemorated in a beautiful park that bears his name and contains an equestrian statue of this national hero. The cathedral, several centuries old, is truly a work of art, built in the Spanish colonial style.

Other important Honduran cities are San Pedro Sula, which is the center of the banana industry and also has great commercial importance in the interior of the northern and northwestern sections of the country; Puerto Cortes, situated near the mouth of the Ulua River, the largest stream in Honduras, which is the main port on the Atlantic coast and the terminus of a railroad through an agricultural region; and La Ceiba, Tela, Puerto Castilla, and Trujillo, harbors on the northern coast, the first named being terminus of the railroad that runs through the banana zone. Among the interior cities Comayagua, Juticalpa, and Danli are worthy of note, as is Santa Rosa de Copan, center of the tobacco industry. Amapala is the principal port on the Pacific.

Some of the Honduran mountains, of which there are many, rise to heights of more than 6,000 feet. The valleys and plateaus found in the country are large and fertile, suitable for agriculture and stock farming. These rich lands are crossed by great rivers that flow into both oceans. The geographical position and the topography of



TEGUCIGALPA, HONDURAS

The Republic offers to the traveler a succession of landscapes of great beauty, such as the scenes about Tegucigalpa.



THE PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, TEGUCIGALPA

The fortresslike Palace of the President overlooks the Choluteca River.



Honduras tend to make the country's climate variable, but it is, as a rule, healthful and delightful. Honduran forests are well supplied with lumber and cabinet woods, mahogany being the most important among the latter. There are, besides, many varieties of textile plants, dye woods, and medicinal plants. The mineral wealth of Honduras can well be compared to that of the principal producing centers of the world. Gold, silver, and iron mines and deposits of those metals abound in the country. At the present time agriculture is one of the outstanding sources of the country's wealth. Coffee, cacao, bananas, potatoes, corn, and rice are produced in great quantities. Honduran banana exports are the largest in the New



Photograph by James A. G. Rehn

#### LAKE YOJOA

The waters of this lake and its mountainous shores are brilliant with the magical tints of the tropical zone.

World. The animal life of the country is exceedingly interesting. The forests are inhabited by pumas, panthers, bears, and tapirs, as well as by the species of apes peculiar to the Tropics, and by a great variety of birds of brilliant plumage, such as quetzals, macaws, and various kinds of parrots.

Road construction is making great progress in Honduras at the present time. The country is now meeting its transportation requirements with railways, roads, steamboats, and airplanes. Communication between the capital city and the Pacific coast has been established by means of a road from Tegucigalpa to San Lorenzo, a port near Amapala. Another road leaves Tegucigalpa and runs through Comayagua and Siguatepeque to the shore of beautiful Lake



Yojoa. On the other side of this lake the road begins once more in the town of Jaral and goes to Potrerillos. There it meets the national railway, which begins at Puerto Cortes and passes through San Pedro Sula. There are, besides, railways linking the Atlantic ports to the agricultural regions of the interior. Airplane services have been established between Tegucigalpa and Tela, with a stop at San Pedro Sula, and from Tegucigalpa to La Ceiba and Puerto Castilla. The lines of the Pan American Airways cross Honduras from Tela, on the Atlantic, to San Lorenzo, on the Pacific, thus uniting the country with all the other American nations. Steamers plying between Panama and San Francisco touch the Pacific Honduran



LOADING BANANAS AT TELA

Great quantities of bananas, the country's chief export commodity, are shipped through the northern port of Tela.

coast. On the Atlantic side there are regular steamship services between Puerto Cortes, La Ceiba, Tela, and Trujillo, and New Orleans, Mobile, and New York.

Honduras is rich in archaeological remains. Some of the Maya ruins at Santa Rosa de Copan once formed a nearly rectangular walled area, 1,600 feet long and 900 wide, within which have been found stone idols and altars, and the remains of imposing pyramids. There are, besides, the ruins of other buildings and numerous monoliths, carved with great originality and excellent taste. The ruins of Tenampua are on the crest of a high hill, 20 miles distant from the city of Comayagua. They consist of towers, walls, terraces, and numerous pyramids.

# MEXICO

By JOSÉ TERCERO

THE Republic of Mexico lies approximately between  $14^{\circ}$  and  $32^{\circ}$  north latitude and  $96^{\circ}$  and  $117^{\circ}$  west longitude, with a surface area of 760,290 square miles and a population of 16,527,766. It is bounded on the north by the United States and on the south by Guatemala and British Honduras; the Pacific and the Atlantic Oceans and the Caribbean Sea bathe its extensive shores.

The topography of the country is as complex and varied as its history, or the multitude of races that have peopled it. From the ribbon of tropical lowlands bordering either coast the earth rises in a series of terraces culminating in the mountain ranges which parallel the shore. Between them, at an average altitude of nearly 10,000 feet, lies an immense plateau which runs from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec to the northern boundary.

Successive waves of humanity have broken over the plateaus, crossed the mountains, and reached the coast; others, surging from the sea, have passed the mountains and overrun valleys and plains. All have explored to the north, trafficked with the south, developed civilizations, waged warfare, and extended their boundaries, leaving throughout the country vestiges of their language, religion, science, and art. From this unceasing ebb and flow have risen in the central valleys, on the shores of lakes, and along rivers and the Gulf of Mexico, civilizations comparable with those of the ancient East whence proceeded, according to some archaeologists, the first settlers of America more than 10,000 years ago. The indigenous civilizations left behind them, in the localities where their splendor was greatest, cities and monuments which make up what might be called the Orient of America; this was particularly true of the Toltecs and Aztecs in the central plateau and of the Maya in the south and southwest.

Later came the "bearded white men" to fulfill the prophecy of Quetzalcoatl. These established their capital on the ruins of the great Aztec metropolis, Tenochtitlan, and the extent of the Spanish colonial régime was once more limited by the topographical features that had determined the size and importance of native centers. The white flood, although obliterating the cities in its path to such a degree that cathedrals were literally as well as metaphorically erected on the ruins of temples and pyramids, was not strong enough to overcome the indigenous brown currents, which stopped its advance and ended by absorbing it, thus creating a new race.

So modern Mexico is a kaleidoscope of human history; from the capital to the mountains, the traveler will pass from 1933 to 1850,



THE NATIONAL PALACE, MEXICO CITY

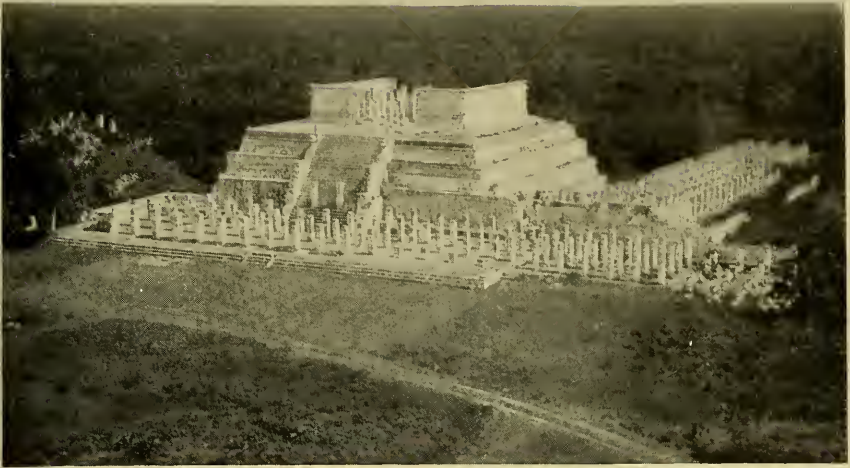
The National Palace, housing the executive and various other government offices, occupies the site of Montezuma's residence, and later, a home of Cortés, which was destroyed in 1692. The present structure was begun shortly after that date and enlarged in recent years by the addition of a third story.



TAXCO

No visit to Mexico would be complete without including the birthplace of silver mining in the New World. Set aside by governmental decree as a national monument, the town has resisted the invasion of modern business enterprises and retains its colonial atmosphere. At every turn in the narrow tortuous streets an architectural gem is revealed.





Courtesy of Edmundo S. Morales

#### TEMPLE OF THE WARRIORS AT CHICHÉN ITZA

Many years of patient labor have been devoted by archeologists to the excavation and repair of this monument of Maya civilization in Yucatan, also known as the "Temple of a Thousand Columns."

to 1792, to 1500, and thence backwards to neolithic times. In the capital itself he will see, cheek by jowl with modern districts, remains of the colonial era and of arcaic America. Everywhere he may go, the weight of ages will be apparent, giving every detail, every panorama, every hamlet, a new significance. Throughout the history of Mexico, its age-long heritage has been growing with the increment of new epochs. The amalgamation has cost pain and effort, and the depth of human suffering inherent in each change is expressed and reflected in the architecture, the painting, and the music of each of the great stages of the Mexican past.

The languid tropics welcome the wayfarer who enters Mexico by sea or from the south. Until the establishment of direct air communication between the Maya peninsula of Yucatan and the mainland, a visit to Yucatan had been a thing apart, a prelude to the rest of the Republic; such is still the case for the earthbound traveler. It is impossible to describe in a few lines the remains of that great race, acquainted with astronomy and mathematics two centuries before the Christian era. To pass by the opportunity to stop at Yucatan is an error of the first magnitude.

If the traveler comes from the north, he will traverse by highway or rail a portion of the extensive and sparsely populated plateaus of



northern Mexico, passing through the main mining, railway, stock-raising, and cotton centers of that region. Monterrey, Chihuahua, Torreon, Durango, Saltillo, Zacatecas, San Luis Potosi will be left behind as he climbs gradually into the States of the great central plateau, fertile and populous. Queretaro, with its seventeenth century colonial and monastic charm, and plateresque Guanajuato still keep their individuality, accentuated even more by contrasts between the old and the modern. Then he gradually ascends to the marvelous Valley of Mexico, in whose center the "very noble and very loyal," colonial, imperial, and republican Mexico City is awaiting him.

The ascent from either coast, particularly from Vera Cruz on the Gulf of Mexico, offers a bewildering transition from banana fields and palm groves, coffee estates and sugar plantations, gardenias and orchids, over tortuous defiles and along terrifying precipices, around majestic, snowy peaks, to wide fields crisscrossed by straight rows of maguey—that most Mexican of all plants—between the two majestic sentinels of the valley, Popocatepetl and Ixtaccihuatl, and the great pyramids of Teotihuacan. Over the same route, after burning his vessels, came the Conquistador with his daring band to master an empire. Through the same defiles later descended trains of pack animals, burdened with uncounted treasure to fill the insatiable maws of Spanish galleons. The soil, changeless as the vegetation that springs from it, witnessed an interminable procession of viceroys, inquisitors, adventurers, lords and ladies of high degree, missionaries, and settlers; it was bathed in the blood of the brave men who shook off the colonial yoke; it reduced to ashes the imperial dreams of the last of the Bonapartes; and beside the Nahuatl and the Mixtecs it buried the picturesque Zouaves and the warlike Grenadiers of the old Imperial Guard. And to the visitor of to-day the unchanging hills offer a hospitable welcome.

The capital is an ideal starting point for a pilgrimage into the past. At its gates are the floating gardens of Xochimilco, lighthearted, festive, and perfumed, whose gentle canals and flowering *chinampas* have been cultivated for unnumbered years. The pyramid-temple of Cuicuilco and the tomb of Copilco, both buried by the liquid lava of Ajusco perhaps nine thousand years ago, invite meditation. Still within the valley, only a short distance from Mexico City, Teotihuacan, the sacred city of the Golden Age of the Toltecs, has uncovered its Pyramids of the Sun and the Moon, its Temple of Agriculture, its Road of the Dead, its Temple of Quetzalcoatl, its Citadel. Visions of the past haunt Tacuba, where under the centuries-old *ahuehuete* tree sat Cortés, beaten and persecuted, to weep on the "Sad Night" the loss of his warriors; the so-called "Casa de Alvarado" in Coyoacan and the palace of Cortés; and the verdant Borda Gardens in Cuernavaca, across the beautiful Ajusco mountains. Taxco, the inimitable, a colonial jewel set in the mountains, is now a mecca for the artist-



IXTACCIHUATL

Every panoramic view in the central plateau of Mexico is dominated by rugged peaks, often of such height that they are eternally snow covered. It was from the pass between Ixtaccihuatl and Popocatepetl that Cortés obtained his first view of Tenochtitlán, which was to become the City of Mexico.

traveler who, continuing to the west, catches an awe-inspiring glimpse of the Pacific from the old walls of Acapulco, whither came the yearly galleons from far-away Manila, to unload silks and spices which, carried in mule trains through the shady forests of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, were reshipped on the Gulf of Mexico for Spain. The monumental aspect of colonial activities is preserved in the architectural wonders of Tepozotlan, Churubusco, Puebla de los Angeles, Oaxaca, Queretaro. And in Guadalajara, the Pearl of the West, perhaps the most Spanish city of vice-regal Mexico, the atmosphere and the women recall romantic Seville. El Nevado of Toluca, the crest of Orizaba, Malinche, Ajusco, Popocatepetl and Ixtaccihuatl are a standing invitation to all mountain climbers, offering from their rarefied heights unexpected views and perspectives.

And in his travels, be they for business or for pleasure, the visitor should not fail to stop at least once in some little hamlet, far from the city, and feel the frank, happy, and hospitable spirit of little-known rural Mexico. He will find comfortable quarters in any city or considerable town, and to reach any corner of the country he may choose his own means of locomotion, from the swift synthetic bird to the patient humble burro of the liquid eyes and sure foot. Wherever he may go, he is sure of a warm welcome, and on leaving the country he will feel that he has left something of himself behind, something which will ever call him back.

## NICARAGUA

THE Republic of Nicaragua has an area of 49,200 square miles, and a population of more than 638,000. To the sister nations of Central America and to all others in the world, Nicaragua offers every product of the tropical horn of plenty. The country is well supplied with rivers, which run from inland heights to the waters of both oceans; crossed by two chains of mountains, whose ruggedness is at once accentuated by peaks and volcanoes and softened by two great lakes; endowed with virgin forests, fertile plains, and rich inland plateaus; and inhabited by races whose historical heritage goes beyond the centuries of discovery and conquest.

Archaeologists believe that when Gil González de Ávila reached Nicaragua in 1522 the indigenous tribes living in that region had reached a high degree of development, as shown by the monoliths, ruins, pottery, and other relics found in various parts of the nation. The chief of one of these tribes, called Nicarao, received the Spaniards with great cordiality, and embraced the Catholic faith. It is believed that the newcomers honored him by giving his name to the country.

The conquerors, winning the friendship of some of the Indians and fighting the rest, firmly established themselves in the new domain and began the colonial epoch, during which they founded cities that are to-day among the most important in Nicaragua.

Centuries later the love of liberty signaled the advent of modern times. To-day the world is witnessing the development of the Nicaraguan nation, which was born before the arrival of Columbus and strengthened by the vigor of Spain.

Managua, the capital city, has more than 60,000 inhabitants and is embellished by splendid parks and fine buildings, such as the National Palace and the new City Hall. A cathedral and a presidential palace are under construction at the present time, replacing those injured by the last earthquake. Lake Managua, situated near the city, offers views of rare beauty. A fine drive skirts the shore. Across the water the massive cone of Momotombo, an extinct volcano, rises to more than 4,000 feet, flanked by the heights of Mount Masaya. Momotombito, another volcano, emerges from the midst of the lake. By means of the Tipitapa River, Lake Managua communicates with the great Lake Nicaragua, which has more than a thousand islands and two volcanoes, Ometepe and Madera.

Granada and Leon, two of the oldest Nicaraguan cities, are rich in history and tradition. Leon was founded in 1523, and to-day has more than 47,000 inhabitants. It is one of the most important cultural centers of the country and its cathedral, begun in 1537, is a true architectural treasure that represents a century of toil. Granada, whose present population is 18,000, is situated on the shores of Lake Nicaragua and has been called "the Queen of the Great Lake." It has some beautiful buildings, and has preserved its Castilian tradi-





#### MANAGUA

The capital and largest city of Nicaragua lies on the shore of Lake Managua. Upper: A classic simplicity of architecture dignifies the new City Hall. Lower: Dario Park, named after the great Nicaraguan poet, one of the most famous writers of Spanish verse, adorns the lake front. In the background is one of the city's leading clubs.





Courtesy of Brig. Gen. Dion Williams

#### MT. CHIONCO

Numerous lakes, together with the many peaks of the Nicaraguan cordillera, have made the country known as "a land of lakes and volcanoes."

tion with admirable devotion. Among other Nicaraguan cities, mention must be made of Metapa, the birthplace of Rubén Darío, one of the greatest poets who has ever written in Spanish.

Education is making splendid progress in Nicaragua. The Government's interest in the subject is clearly shown by increases in the sums assigned to the development and maintenance of schools, and by subsidies to private educational institutions. There is a law school at Managua and schools of law, medicine, and dentistry at Leon and Granada.

The National Railway of Nicaragua covers a length of 170 miles and runs from Corinto, an important commercial center and seaport on the Pacific, to the city of Chinandega, and thence to Leon, Managua, Masaya, Granada, and Diriamba. The road crosses one of the most important coffee zones of the country, and runs through agricultural and cattle sections. Several branch lines are under construction at the present time. When the Pan American Railway route was surveyed, the section of the National Railway running from Corinto to Granada was accepted as part of the system.

On the Atlantic coast of Nicaragua, near the Rio Grande, there are more than 26 miles of privately owned railroads, and on the western shore of Lake Managua several miles of steam-operated tramways, which are also the property of a private company. Plans have been

made for the construction of a railroad running from the Atlantic coast to Lake Nicaragua, a distance of some 200 miles.

The National Government is now engaged in a program of road building which has for its aim the establishment of highway communications between the northern and southern regions of the country. Roads have been completed recently between Managua and Matagalpa, Granada and Nandaime, Granada and Tipitapa, and Masaya and Carazo.

Nicaragua has maritime services with Honduras, El Salvador and Costa Rica. The two Nicaraguan lakes are navigable and their waters are constantly crossed by steamers, motorboats, and sailboats. Several Nicaraguan ships ply between the Atlantic coast and the



Courtesy of Brig. Gen. Dion Williams

#### SAN JUAN DEL SUR, NICARAGUA

This crescent harbor on the Pacific coast is a port of call for many steamers.

United States. Ships sailing from Panama to San Francisco, Calif., touch San Juan del Sur and Corinto. There are regular passenger and freight services from New Orleans to San Juan del Norte and Bluefields, the principal banana port. Ships sailing northward from Colon, Panama, usually stop at the Nicaraguan ports of the Atlantic coast. All the main Nicaraguan cities have landing fields, and the airplane services of the Pan American Airways keep the country in touch with the other nations of the New World.

The mountains, lakes, and volcanoes found in Nicaragua offer a majestic spectacle. Those who come to this land on which nature has lavished so many gifts will be deeply impressed, and are certain to feel, at the time of departure, the desire to pay the country another visit.

## PANAMA

THE discovery of the South Sea or Pacific Ocean by Vasco Núñez de Balboa opened new horizons to the influence and dominion of the kings of Castile. Unknown territories, vast and rich, were envisioned by that immortal discoverer as extending along the limitless coast, laved by the tranquil waters of the new ocean. After endless vicissitudes and countless struggles a site was chosen to serve as a base for the future great enterprises of the *Conquistadores*, those valiant men whose strength and daring ever shall endure as the most splendid epic of the Latin race. The site selected was a tiny settlement of Indian fishermen where a detachment sent by Pedro Arias de Ávila from the Island of Taboga to survey the coast encountered the expeditionary force being conducted overland by Dr. Gaspar de Espinosa. "Panama," the Indians named the hamlet, and there on August 15, 1519, was founded one of the first cities on the American continent.

In olden days, through the power of Spain, Panama was the outpost of civilization, vigor, enlightenment, and grandeur for the entire American continent. To-day it constitutes the center of distribution for the commerce, wealth, progress, and comfort of the western world by the opening of the trans-Isthmian canal, the long-cherished dream of the great minds of Spain, England, Portugal, France, and America.

The growth of Old Panama was solid and rapid in the extreme, and the inexhaustible treasures which converged there, and accumulated in the city during the journey to Spain, aroused the insane ambitions of buccaneers and pirates. Its fortunate geographical location made it the key to the Pacific, and the sumptuous splendor it gradually acquired stirred the admiration of the civilized world and excited the cupidity of powerful nations.

On Wednesday, January 28, 1671, after a furious battle, Old Panama was seized by Henry Morgan, the bold pirate, and flames reduced to ashes that center of civilization which had radiated progress for a century and a half. It was not Morgan who set fire to the maddened city. In this instance the incendiary torch was converted into a symbol of exalted patriotism, for the Spaniards preferred to destroy their beautiful city rather than to see it fall into the hands of the enemy.

Old Panama had then reached the height of its importance. The opulent city was the capital of the region, the seat of a judicial jurisdiction extending south to the Strait of Magellan and north to the Gulf of Fonseca, and the center of American commerce. Through Panama passed the notables sent by the Catholic kings to the lands





Photograph by the U. S. Bureau of Public Roads

#### RUINED CATHEDRAL TOWER, OLD PANAMA

Among the many historic remains in Panama are the ruins of old Panama, founded in 1519 and destroyed by fire in 1671 to prevent the city from falling into the hands of the pirate Morgan.

#### MONUMENT TO BALBOA

In honor of the Spanish conquistador, Vasco Núñez de Balboa, who crossed the Isthmus in 1533 and discovered the Pacific Ocean, this imposing monument has been erected in the city of Panama.

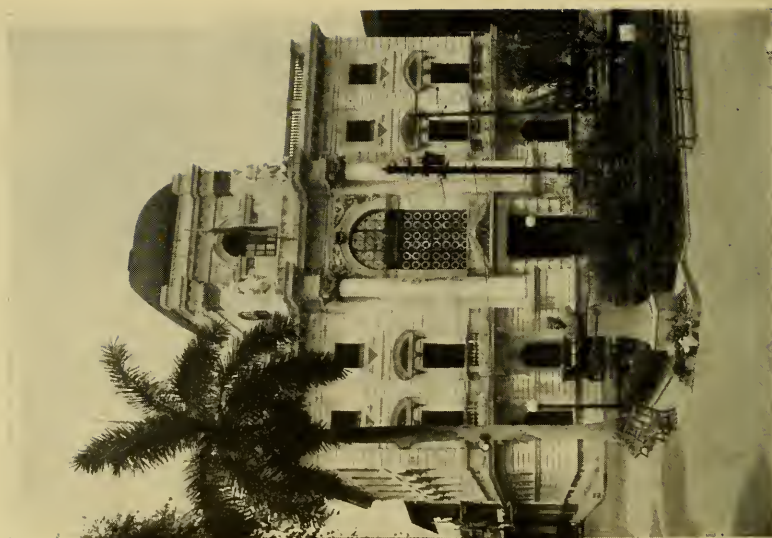
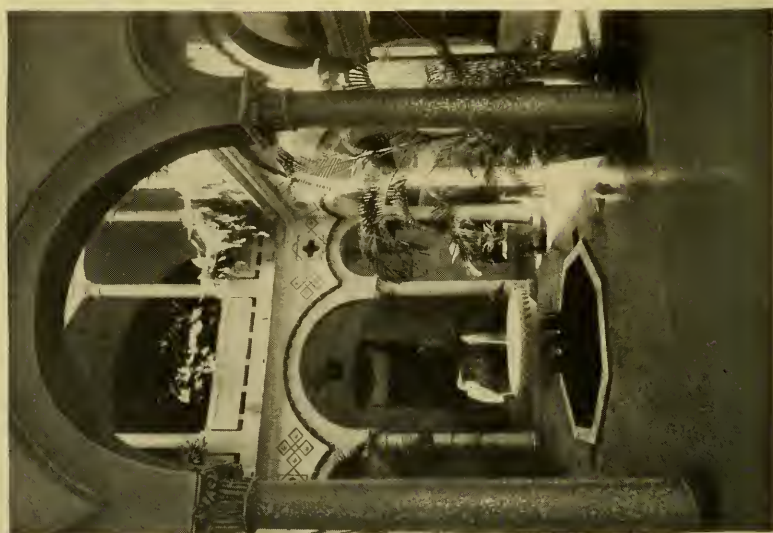


Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip



# PANAMA CITY

Legion are the tourist attractions in Panama. Apart from the always interesting Canal, there are modern hotels, clubs, beautiful drives, beaches, and the unusual and widely famed shops. Left: The Presidential Palace contains this charming patio. Right: Conspicuous among the modern buildings is the City Hall which occupies a historic site.



of the new hemisphere; through her passed the highest officials detailed to the Spanish colonies of South America, as well as prelates of noble lineage, distinguished jurists, members of the inquisition, soldiers of proverbial bravery, and gentlemen of the court.

Of this picturesque city, which perished in a macabre dance provoked by the buccaneers' insatiable greed for gold, no monument survives save majestic ruins which, enveloped in mysterious silence, are but the echo of grandeur and glory.

A new Panama shortly began to rise about 6 miles west of the destroyed city, where a rocky peninsula offered natural defense. Under the direction of officials sent from the Spanish Court a new cathedral, and buildings of stone and masonry 3½ to 4 feet thick, as well as city walls calculated to defy destruction from pirates or the lapse of centuries, were soon constructed. Many of the structures then built, such as the cathedral, the post-office building, and the churches of La Merced, Santa Ana, and Santo Domingo, still stand. Next to these landmarks of colonial days may be seen modern edifices of all sorts: The Government House, the Municipal Theater, Santo Tomas Hospital, the Presidential Palace, and many others.

In 1824, when Bolívar issued his invitation for an assembly of plenipotentiaries at Panama, he said of this city: "It seems that if the world should have to choose its capital, the Isthmus of Panama would be selected for this grand destiny, located as it is in the center of the globe, having on one side Asia and on the other Africa and Europe." The Congress which the Liberator assembled there in 1826 was the forerunner of the present Pan American conferences, and although the time was not ripe for the international organization which he visualized more than a century ago the high standards of inter-American cooperation which he then set forth are gradually becoming the realities of to-day.

The tourist who visits this new Panama will find ample facilities for seeing the canal, with its winding route, its locks and lakes and the spectacle of nature harnessed by the skill of man. The fame of its shops, operated by Panamanians, Hindoos, Greeks, Chinese, Turks, Italians, or other people from far corners of the world, has been heralded far and wide. Modern hotels offer pleasant and comfortable accommodations. The waters near by have long been noted as a fisherman's paradise. The Panama Railway and the Isthmian airways connect the city with Colon, the Atlantic terminal of the canal, and the principal port of the Republic. Furthermore, a highway extending almost to the Costa Rican boundary, as well as an efficient airways system, afford facilities for visiting the mountainous and cool interior.

## PARAGUAY

PARAGUAY lies almost in the center of the great continent of South America, bathed by two of its mightiest rivers and reflecting the deep blue of its serene skies. It is a land of flowers and butterflies, undulating plains, dense forests at whose wealth of flora and fauna naturalists marvel, and a vigorous forward-looking people.

It occupies the heart of what was called, in the 16th century, the Titanic Province of the Paraguay, because its far-flung boundaries included almost all the central and southeastern sections of the southern New World. Spanish *conquistadores* and adventurers arrived in search of the fabulous riches of the mythical Silver Mountains whose existence was declared by members of the Cabot and García expeditions less than 30 years after the epoch-making discovery of Columbus. The Guarani Indians living in this region had attained a high degree of agricultural civilization; after impressing the white man with their powers at arms, they offered him an alliance upon which was based the fusion of their races.

The realization of the futility of any search for easy riches, together with the natural beauty of the country, soon turned the restless *conquistador* into a settler, and the Province of Paraguay became the center from which colonization spread to the lands lying along the Río de la Plata. Among the most notable colonization experiments in the history of Paraguay were the famous Jesuit missions; in the reductions the missionaries tried to establish economically independent Indian commonwealths under wise, sympathetic guidance. While most of the churches that gave the region a reputation for splendor and wealth are now either in ruins or but shadows of their former grandeur, at Yaguaron, only about 20 miles from Asuncion, the church of San Roque offers a startling contrast between severity of exterior and warmth and brilliance of interior. The economic possibilities of the former Titanic Province, today a unified and progressive republic, are practically limitless.

When the Viceroyalty of Buenos Aires fell, the Province of Paraguay displayed characteristic spirit by deciding to become an independent nation, and shook off the yoke of Spain the night of May 14-15, 1811; the republic entered the galaxy of free peoples with the formal declaration of its Congress General in October, 1813.

By its natural beauty, its ideal climate, and the cordial hospitality of its people, Paraguay attracts travelers from near and far, and





THE GOVERNMENT PALACE, ASUNCIÓN

The National Government offices are housed in this handsome building on the water front, which was erected by a former President of the Republic.

demonstrates how rightly it was called "*Paradise of the Conquistador*." By air, land, or water the visitor has easy access, not only to its beautiful capital, but also to other alluring places within its borders.

Asuncion was founded August 15, 1537, by the illustrious Juan de Salazar, to serve as a place of "shelter and rehabilitation during the conquest." In the early Spanish régime this colonizing center of the whole Río de la Plata basin was the picturesque seat of the provincial government. The Asuncion of to-day is a beautiful city of 100,000 inhabitants which is situated on a series of gentle slopes, bathed on the west by the wide river which serves as a natural highway to foreign countries. The city has developed toward the east, and some of its most heavily traveled avenues pass through beautiful residential sections with charming cottages and stately mansions. Rapid and comfortable means of transportation unite the different sections one with another; all trolley lines converge in the center of the city. Modern port works promote national and international commerce.

Asuncion is famous for its beautiful parks. The Botanical Garden would be an ornament to any capital in the world, while Caballero Park, the Plaza Uruguaya, the Plaza del Congreso, Plaza Independencia, and the Plaza Santo Domingo are other pleasant spots that delight the tourist by their invitation to rest and relax. Commemorative monuments, government buildings, theaters, and hotels add distinction to the panorama of the city which, seen from the river, is surprisingly colorful. The many hills are outlined against the glowing horizon; white houses stand out from the splendor of tropical vege-





#### ASUNCIÓN

The Paraguayan capital is justly famed for its beautiful parks and streets of unusual width. Upper: Constitution Plaza has for its central feature the Liberty Monument. Lower: Handsome residences reflect the traditional hospitality of Asunción.



"CAACUPÉ"

This painting by the well-known Paraguayan artist, Juan Samudio, faithfully pictures a small town in the interior.

tation; and in the foreground is reflected the Palacio López, now the home of various offices of the National Government.

Farther to the north, but also on the shores of the Paraguay River, is Concepcion, a city which presents to the traveler a mixture of delicacy and strength. Since its foundation in 1773, it has been the economic center of the rich region of northern Paraguay. Well supplied with evidences of modern progress, it is already a great and prosperous metropolis in embryo.

A short distance from Asuncion, San Bernardino and Aregua, resorts popular with travelers, face each other across exquisite Lake Ypacarai. Both are favorites with tourists from the neighboring countries in winter as well as in summer. Villarrica, Piribebuy, and Caacupe are also well-known for mildness of climate and beauty of landscape.

The famous Guayra and Iguazu Falls, in the Parana River, share their indescribable beauties internationally, the one between Paraguay and Brazil, the other between Paraguay, Brazil, and Argentina.

The land of maté, of quebracho, of orange trees, of flocks and herds, the country which conquered the conqueror, the one bilingual nation of America, where all speak with equal ease the language of Castile and the musical Guarani speech, will leave on the mind of the visitor an impression which neither time nor distance can efface.

## PERU

PERU is a land of contrasts. Geographically it is divided into three distinct zones, with as many varieties of climate, products, and soil. The coast is a long narrow desert, with Lima, the City of the Kings, occupying the largest of the many river valleys which form oases in this barren strip between the Pacific and the Andes. Next comes the *puna*, the plateaus and tablelands which nestle among the three Andine ranges traversing the country from north to south at an average height of about 17,000 feet. On the eastern Andine slopes begins that section of Peru called the *montaña*, an amazingly fertile region of vast luxuriant forests and great rivers extending for about 800 miles from north to south.

These clashing contrasts in topography and climate of so much interest to the traveler have made the development of natural resources a spectacular struggle. The admirable vitality of the Peruvian people lies in the spirit in which since prehistoric days it has accepted the challenge of nature, which, as if to tempt man, flung her greatest treasures in the most inaccessible regions of the country. In order that the products of the rich mines far in the Andes might be brought to the sea the highest railroad in the world was built over swift mountain torrents, through narrow canyons and along cliffs of dizzy heights, until it surmounted a pass more than three miles high. The rivers which, fed by melting snows and seasonal rains in the mountains, flow across the desert have been made to furnish water for extensive irrigation systems, reclaiming large tracts of the desert into fertile lands which yield abundant crops of sugarcane, cotton, and rice. A system of terraces and platforms devised by the Incas centuries ago makes possible the growing of wheat, barley, corn, and potatoes on steep slopes in the narrow valleys and in the highlands. The llama, that indispensable pack animal, and its cousins, the alpaca and the vicuña, supply raw material for the fast-growing wool industry of the country. Despite the difficulties of transportation large quantities of rubber, gums, and woods are extracted yearly from the *montaña*, the largest source of wealth for the future.

Contrasts in Peru are not only geographical. There is a striking difference between the cities in the highlands and those on the coast. The former, originally built by the Incas, have an atmosphere of their own. The latter, founded by the *conquistadores* during the colonization period, combine the splendor of their historical background with the activity and progress of the twentieth century. Of these, Lima,





LIMA, PERU

The "City of the Kings," founded by Pizarro in 1535, to-day contrasts modern buildings with a colonial background. Upper: The Presidential Palace faces the historic Plaza de Armas. Lower: The elegance of the Chamber of Deputies is typical of the modern city.





AREQUIPA

This night view shows a corner of the Plaza de Armas with a tower of the Church of La Compañía in the far corner.

the political and commercial capital of the country, excels in beauty and grandeur. Founded by Pizarro in 1535, it became the capital of a great viceroyalty and for three centuries was the principal center of art and culture as well as the main administrative and military outpost of Spain in South America. To-day it combines the charm of its colonial background with the comfort of a modern metropolis.

One of the places of great historic interest in Lima is the Plaza de Armas. Located in the heart of the city, it saw Pizarro's rule come to an end with his death in 1541. It heard the declaration of Peruvian independence read on July 28, 1821, and two years later it witnessed the inauguration of the first President of the Republic. Grouped around this plaza are some of the most important buildings in Lima, such as the historic palace of the viceroys, now the Government Palace, the Palace of the Archbishop, a modern version of the colonial style, and the gray stone cathedral with its twin towers. In this church rest the remains of Pizarro in a glass casket. Not far distant are a number of convents and churches, dating from early times, and a short distance away, on the Plaza Bolívar, stand the two buildings which house the Peruvian Congress. One of these, the ancient Hall of the Inquisition, now occupied by the Senate, is of



Courtesy of Lucy Farnsworth

#### THE MAIN PLAZA IN CUZCO

Of unusual interest is Cuzco, formerly the capital of the Incas, and its remains of their ancient civilization. Incan walls have frequently served as foundations for structures erected at much later periods.

special interest because of the magnificent carving on its mahogany ceiling.

The old residences with overhanging wooden balconies still predominate in Lima; the Torre Tagle Palace, now used as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, being the most perfect colonial house in the city. Built by the Marqués de Torre Tagle in the first half of the eighteenth century, it was purchased in this century by the Government and furnished with antique pieces of the colonial period. Also of interest to the visitor is the University of San Marcos with its quiet cloisters, shaded patios, and weather-beaten walls. Founded by Charles V in 1551, it is the oldest institution of learning in the Americas. Not far from the university the traveler enters the newer part of the city, which is being built toward the south on broad and spacious lines.

Eight miles from the capital and united to it by steam and electric lines and a modern highway is the seaport of Callao, a commercial and industrial center, with beaches and seaside resorts. To the south of Callao is the port of Mollendo, which gives access to two cities in the highlands, Arequipa, the quaint metropolis of southern Peru, lying under the shadow of majestic Mount Misti, and the imperial city of Cuzco, ancient capital of the Incas. Situated 11,400 feet above sea level, Cuzco offers striking examples of Incan architecture as well

as many gems of Christian art. The whole city and its environs are imbued with the romance of a civilization that has passed away, and the Indian of to-day by the sound of his flute evokes the spirit of his ancestors and the glories of his race.

Among other interesting Peruvian cities are Puno, on the shores of Lake Titicaca, the highest lake in the world navigable by steam; Ayacucho, the scene of the celebrated battle which ended the Peruvian War of Independence; and on the north coast, Piura, seat of the cotton industry, Trujillo, headquarters of the principal sugar mills, and Talara, the petroleum port.

Peru offers easy access to principal points of interest by means of its excellent roads and highways. The road from Lima to Huanuco, noted for its scenic views, is the highest automobile road in the world. The rail trips from Callao or Lima to Cerro de Pasco, in the heart of the highland mining district, and from Mollendo to Cuzco, offer the traveler beautiful panoramas which could only be excelled by the amplitude of the perspective to be had from the modern airships which connect all important cities in this wonderful country.



Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip

#### MOUNT LA JUNTAY, PERU

At La Juntay, the "Mountain of Perpetual Snow," near Huancayo, the visitor finds, as elsewhere in the Andes, that useful animal of the highlands, the llama, silhouetted against a background of sky or mountain. The llama serves both as a beast of burden and as a source of wool.



## URUGUAY

THE cultured and progressive Arcadia of the New World, the Republic of Uruguay, is one of the most advanced nations of America. Its development along material, cultural, political, and social lines has been and still is so fundamentally consistent that Uruguay stands out prominently among the younger nations of to-day. Its people, virile, intelligent, hospitable, and cheerful, have won the affection, respect, and admiration not only of the sister nations of America but of the whole world for, profiting by the generosity with which nature has endowed their native land, they have created a nation in which material prosperity has not been considered more important than human values.

Uruguay covers an area of 72,172 square miles, whose peaceful undulating plains are watered by numerous rivers and crossed by excellent highways and railways. The nation is almost completely surrounded by water. On its northwest boundary with Brazil are Lake Mirim and the Cuareim River; the Atlantic and the Rio de la Plata bathe its shores on the east and south; and the Uruguay River bounds the country on the west. Not without reason has Uruguay been called the paradise of the farmer and stockraiser; its perfect climate, fertile soil, and abundant pasturage have combined to form elements out of which a people of initiative and vision have carved a progressive and prosperous nation.

The land that is now Uruguay was first discovered by Juan Díaz de Solís in 1515. Five years later one of the vessels of Magellan's fleet entered the mouth of the Rio de la Plata near where Montevideo now stands; tradition has it that the cry of the watch, "Monte vide eu," gave the capital its name.

From the time of its independence, Uruguay has had a strongly centralized form of government. One of the unique features of the constitution is that the executive powers are divided between the President and the National Council of Administration, composed of nine members. The former, who represents the State at home and abroad, maintains peace and order within the nation and security against foreign aggression, and is commander-in-chief of all land and sea forces, appoints the Ministers of Foreign Relations, War and Navy, and the Interior, and their staffs. The council, which has nearly all the administrative responsibility of the country, names the Ministers of the Treasury, Public Instruction, Industry, and Public Works, and has charge of the agencies devoted to public health and welfare.

In the city and port of Montevideo may be read, as in an open book, the history of Uruguay, and the progress of the nation has paralleled



that of the metropolis. From a tiny settlement founded in 1724, Montevideo has risen to be one of the most important centers of South America. In few cities has national and civic initiative been conceived and applied with greater intelligence and ability. Montevideo is one of the most beautiful capitals of America, a popular resort in summer and a headquarters of art and culture in winter. Its great extension, the spaciousness of its tree-bordered boulevards, and the number and size of its squares and parks, reflect something of the atmosphere of the great plains lying to the north.

Montevideo has three distinct districts. The old quarter, built on the peninsula or "great spoon," is the commercial and financial



PLAZA LIBERTAD, MONTEVIDEO

This attractive plaza is intersected by one of the city's main thoroughfares, Avenida 18 de Julio, named for the date of the oath to the Uruguayan constitution.

center of the capital. In the modern section which prolongs it are imposing government and office buildings and churches. The finest homes, set in beautiful grounds fragrant with flowers, are found in the third. Of its many splendid parks, Rodó Park and El Prado, noted for their roses, are especially attractive. Among the many handsome buildings of architectural distinction are the Government Palace, the cathedral, the university, the historic Cabildo, the Stock Exchange, and the Ministry of Public Works; well-built hospitals, theaters, hotels, and private residences also give character to the city.

Summer is the season when Montevideo is seen to best advantage, and when its aspect impresses the traveler with greatest pleasure. The beautiful beaches of Pocitos, Ramírez, Capurro, and Carrascó, or



ARTIGAS MONUMENT, MONTEVIDEO

In Plaza Independencia the Father of Uruguayan Independence is honored by this handsome monument, imposing in its simplicity.



CARRASCO BEACH

The fine beaches within and near the city limits of Montevideo are thronged throughout the summer months with vacationists from many nations.

the many that lie within the urban limits, are perhaps the best known and most thronged; there vacationists from all parts of the country and from neighboring nations gather every year in large numbers.

On the shores of the Uruguay River are three important cities, Paysandu, Salto, and Fray Bentos. They are all packing centers; Salto is also in the midst of a rich fruit and wine district. Beautiful Mercedes, near Fray Bentos, adds to agricultural fame its reputation as a health resort.

Two important mining centers are Lavalleja (formerly Minas) in the Department of Minas, and Melo, farther north, in Cerro Largo. This region has, in addition to farm and pasture lands, extensive coal deposits and famous granite quarries.

On the Atlantic, some five hours by rail from Montevideo, stands the picturesque port of Maldonado, famous for the seals which, swarming over the islands just offshore and the near-by coast, are a source of revenue for the region. The trip to Maldonado carries the tourist by the beautiful resorts of Atlantida, La Floresta, Solis, and Piriapolis.

Railways and an admirable highway system offer the traveler means of becoming intimately acquainted with the interior. And on leaving Uruguay, these lines of Rubén Darío sum up his impressions:

“Montevideo . . .

Flower among cities, city among flowers . . .”



# VENEZUELA

By JULIO PLANCHART

VENEZUELA has wonderful possibilities for the development of tourist travel. As soon as the highway system now being constructed by the National Government is completed, tourists will be able to travel in comfort throughout the country, and to admire the beauties of a land that has the poetry of distance, embodied in the great plains, and the majesty of altitude, enthroned on the snow-capped crests of the Sierra Nevada of Mérida. There is already a considerable mileage of paved roads.

Venezuela's geographical position in regard to world travel is excellent. Situated in the northern part of South America, it is comparatively close to the Greater Antilles, the United States and Europe, and lies on the route followed by steamers traveling eastward through the Panama Canal from the Pacific.

The mountainous region of Venezuela may be considered a spur of the Andes which, passing under Lake Maracaibo, rises from the shore of the lake, and finally extends to the Caribbean Sea. South of it are the plains and the mighty stream of the Orinoco River, which forms the northern limit of the region near the Guianas, a rich, unexplored, sparsely populated land, high enough to make it a fine abode for a large population. At the present time the Guiana region and the plains are not suitable for tourist travel, but they unquestionably constitute an explorer's paradise.

The growth of Caracas, and its location in a beautiful valley close to the sea where it enjoys a climate termed by Humboldt "a perennial spring," make it the tourist center of Venezuela. The city, founded by Diego de Lozada in 1567, is some 20 miles distant from its seaport, La Guaira, and separated from it by lofty mountains, which reach their highest altitude in beautiful peaks such as Naiguatá and the Saddle of Caracas. This apparently unconquerable barrier is cloven by a fissure ending in a bay and uniting the valley of Caracas and the coast.

La Guaira has all the picturesqueness of a Moorish town, with houses that seem perched on the heights which constantly battle the Caribbean. Here the traveler will find, in the atmosphere of colonial Spain, the evidences of modern progress, typified by the trains and automobiles leading to the national capital over climbing routes that offer views of grandiose beauty.

In less than an hour and a half, Caracas is reached. The everyday life of the city, so familiar to us Venezuelans, may hold unexpected attractions for the tourist. Besides, he must be sure to see the house of Bolívar and the Pantheon, shrines of the father of our country.





#### CARACAS

In Caracas, birthplace of Simón Bolívar, the tourist will delight in many scenes of interest. Upper: The University has long been a center of culture. Lower: The House of Bolívar, with its mementos of the great Liberator, is the mecca of all visitors to the country.

We Venezuelans are attached to Bolívar with an almost religious devotion, and feel that a visit to the city of his birth would be incomplete if these sanctuaries were omitted, as a visit to the city of Washington would be if it were not extended to Mount Vernon, or a tour through Virginia that did not include Lexington, Washington and Lee University, and the mausoleum of the great southern leader, Gen. Robert E. Lee.

The tourist in Venezuela will also be given an opportunity to see the places that embody the best artistic expressions of colonial and national life. In the building of the Colegio Chávez he will find a most attractive example of colonial art, and in the Elliptical Salon,



CURVES ON THE CARACAS-LOS TEQUES HIGHWAY

An excellent network of good roads has made easily accessible to the tourist many of the beauties of the Venezuelan landscape.

the Ministry of Foreign Relations, the Holy Chapel, the City Hall, and La Pastora he will be shown the best works of our national painters.

A motor trip of a few miles gives the traveler an opportunity to admire the scenic grandeur of the Valley of Caracas. The road skirts Mount Avila, of whose beauty Caracans are justly proud, and ends in Petare, a neat, picturesque little town, reminiscent of olden days.

At the present time, the majority of visitors to Venezuela arrive in Caracas, make a tour of the city, pause at a comfortable hotel or restaurant, and then, without a change in route, return to their ship at La Guaira. The result is that they fail to see many sights worth seeing. Perhaps it would be desirable that tours should begin at La Guaira and terminate at Puerto Cabello, as contemplated in the



Courtesy of Julio Planchart

#### THE HOTEL JARDÍN IN MARACAY

One of the prettiest of Venezuelan towns is Maracay, where the visitor's every want is anticipated at the fine new hostelry.

program of the Venezuelan Touring Club. This would be feasible and pleasant now. Besides, the remarkable progress being made in the construction of roads will soon enable the tourist to travel comfortably along the trans-Andine highway to the border of Colombia; to reach cities that offer eloquent testimony of the development of our country; and to admire the majesty of mountain scenery.

A trip through the valleys of Aragua, ending at Puerto Cabello, 130 miles distant, furnishes an opportunity to see the interior of the country. These valleys, called by Humboldt "the Garden of Venezuela," are served by a railway and an excellent road. To cross this region means that the traveler will enter attractive cities, such as Victoria and Valencia, old in appearance and traditions, modern in the comforts they offer, located amid marvelous natural beauty; will visit places of great historic interest, such as the battlefield of Carabobo, on which Bolívar fought the engagement that freed Venezuela from Spanish domination; and by turning briefly aside will get a glimpse of the imposing immensity of the plains. One of the most pleasant towns en route is Maracay, on the shore of a picturesque lake; the fine Hotel Jardín offers excellent accommodations to its guests. Visitors to Caracas return enthusiastic over its climate and charm, and it is to be hoped that many more who touch at Venezuela on Caribbean cruises may take the time to see more of this beautiful country.



# A MESSAGE FOR PAN AMERICAN DAY

By JOHN BASSETT MOORE

*Honorary President of the Pan American Society; Member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration; Former Judge of the Permanent Court of International Justice*

NEARLY 50 years ago, on my first entrance into the Department of State, at Washington, I began to take a particular interest in the affairs of the independent countries of America, now represented in the Pan American Union. Since that time I have cooperated in every possible way, officially and unofficially, in efforts to cultivate among these countries friendly sentiments and good understanding; and, in spite of any and all disappointments, I am not discouraged. On the contrary, taking the world as a whole, the nations of America have no reason to shrink from a comparison.

During the past hundred and forty years there have been two general wars, more or less worldwide in extent. These are (1) the wars growing out of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars, running through more than 20 years, and (2) the recent so-called World War. Few will be found to deny that the unexampled depression now weighing upon the entire world is directly attributable to the so-called World War and to the infatuations that pervaded it and found expression in the treaties of peace by which it was only nominally ended. This war, like the general war that came to a close a hundred years before, was wholly European in its origin. No American nation did anything to bring it on, or in any way contributed to its causes. I say this not in a spirit of reproach, but only with a view to forestall the inclination hastily to impute any unfavorable conditions now existing in the Americas to causes purely local. They are largely attributable to the general dislocation and distress.

Several decades ago, there were writers who proposed to abolish what they called the "old doctrine" of the equality of independent States and to put in its place the "new doctrine" that the great powers had, by their virtuous conduct and example, gained, under modern international law, a "primacy" among their fellows which promised to develop into a central authority for the settlement of all disputes between the nations of Europe. In spite of the fact that this compound of dogma and prophecy was so completely discredited when the great powers fell out and went to war among themselves, we are still asked to accept shallow schemes for the maintenance of peace and concord among nations by paramount force. I observe,



however, that in the recently proposed nonaggression and conciliation agreement between the republics of America, it is expressly provided that in no case shall they resort to "intervention," that is, to measures looking immediately or eventually to the use of force, should the parties decline to accept what they recommended.

If to this proposal it should be objected that long experience has shown that such an expedient will fail permanently to preserve peace, we may at once convincingly answer that recent and current experience has glaringly demonstrated that threats of force not only will not preserve peace but that they may even tend to produce war rather than peace. The so-called World War was at one time much vaunted as a "war to end war"; but, in view of what has taken place, a person who should now assert that that boast was justified would be a fit subject for a psychologist.

In the future, just as in the past, the world must rely for the preservation of peace mainly upon the employment of peaceful methods, such as conciliation, mediation, and arbitration, which, while tending to tranquilize the minds of the disputants, also afford to those who offer their services in the cause of peace an opportunity to reach just conclusions. Such has ever been the ideal of the Union of American Republics formed in the First International American Conference, which assembled at Washington in 1889. Among my most gratifying recollections is the circumstance that I was present at the opening of that great assemblage, and later took a humble part in the furtherance of its objects. Not only the nations of America, but all nations, have reason to be thankful for what was done on that occasion. To promote the harmony of a part of the world is to contribute to the harmony of all the world. In the prompt and cordial acceptance of the award just rendered by the special tribunal of arbitration on the vexed boundary dispute between Guatemala and Honduras, American nations have furnished a gratifying proof that the spirit of peace based on justice still survives. Let us hope that the promptings of reason heard in this instance may spread to other quarters; and to this end let each nation now at peace exert all its influence to limit existing areas of conflict, and to allay the chaos of thought and passion in which the world has been too long engulfed.

## THE GUATEMALAN-HONDURAN BOUNDARY AWARD

THE amicable and definite settlement of the century-old boundary controversy between Guatemala and Honduras marks the closing of another chapter in the long and impressive history of arbitration in the Americas. The Special Boundary Tribunal which rendered the award terminating this long-standing dispute was created by a treaty signed in Washington on July 16, 1930, and consisted of the Chief Justice of the United States, Hon. Charles Evans Hughes, who acted as president, and two distinguished Latin American jurists as arbitrators—Dr. Luis Castro Ureña of Costa Rica and Dr. Emilio Bello Codesido of Chile. Señor Don Benjamín Cohen, at present Chargé d'Affaires of Chile in Washington, was secretary of the Tribunal.

The nations parties to the controversy were represented by two of the signers of the treaty which created the Tribunal: Dr. Carlos Salazar, a distinguished Guatemalan lawyer, and Dr. Mariano Vázquez, an eminent member of the Honduran bar. Each of them has served as Minister of Foreign Affairs of his respective country and has held other important administrative and judicial offices.

After its impressive inauguration at the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union on December 15, 1931, the first duty of the Tribunal was to decide whether it should act as the International Central American Tribunal, as Guatemala contended, or as a special boundary tribunal, as Honduras desired. After receiving from counsel from both parties their respective briefs on this preliminary question the tribunal replied unanimously: . . . "This Special Tribunal, not being constituted strictly, as it is not, according to the Convention of February 7, 1923, has not the competence, as the International Central American Tribunal established by that convention, to take cognizance of the boundary question between Guatemala and Honduras; but it has, and assumes complete jurisdiction to take cognizance of and decide that controversy as Special Boundary Tribunal as provided by the Treaty of July 16, 1930."

In accordance with Article V of the Treaty of Arbitration of July 16, 1930, the two parties to the controversy were in agreement that the only juridical line which could be established between their respective countries was that of the *uti possidetis* of 1821. Thus once the Tribunal had assumed full jurisdiction, it was its duty to determine this line.

At the outset the Tribunal found itself confronted with a difference between the parties as to the significance of the phrase "*uti possidetis* of 1821," as used in Article V of the Arbitration Treaty. Since through Article XII the parties authorized the Tribunal to settle any difference that might arise with regard to the interpretation of the treaty the arbitrators began to study the question of the conflicting definitions of this phrase. Both parties agreed that the principle of *uti possidetis* had reference to the demarcations which existed under the colonial régime, that is, the administrative limits of the colonial entities of Guatemala and Honduras, which later became independent nations. The parties, however, differed as to the test to be applied in determining the limits which divided the two former Provinces when they won their independence from Spain. Guatemala contended that by reference to the "*uti possidetis* of 1821" the parties meant to have the line drawn "in conformity with a fact rather than a theory, the fact being what the Spanish monarch had himself laid down, or permitted, or acquiesced in, or tolerated, as between Province and Province, in 1821," and that the test of that line should be "the sheer factual situation" as it was at that time. Honduras insisted that the phrase "*uti possidetis*" in Article V signified "*uti possidetis juris*" and that a line could not be considered "as being juridically based on a *uti possidetis de facto*."

Both parties in supporting their contentions referred to the historic utilization of the phrase "*uti possidetis*" in Latin American settlements and to former treaties between them relating to the same boundary controversy. The Tribunal disallowed these contentions, holding, in the first instance, that an examination of Latin American settlements failed to disclose a consensus of opinion which would establish a definite criterion for the interpretation of the phrase and in the second that the expression *uti possidetis* was not found in the previous treaties and that, furthermore, the Treaty of 1930 was a new agreement which made no mention of the earlier and unsuccessful efforts at settlement and was to stand on its own footing. The Tribunal stated:

The expression "*uti possidetis*" undoubtedly refers to *possession*. It makes possession the test. In determining in what sense the Parties referred to possession, we must have regard to their situation at the moment the colonial régime was terminated. They were not in the position of warring States terminating hostilities by accepting the status of territory on the basis of conquest. Nor had they derived rights from different sovereigns. The territory of each Party had belonged to the Crown of Spain. The ownership of the Spanish monarch had been absolute. In fact and law, the Spanish monarch had been in possession of all the territory of each. Prior to independence, each colonial entity being simply a unit of administration in all respects subject to the Spanish King, there was no possession in fact or law, in a political sense, independent of his possession. The only possession of either colonial entity before independence was such as could be ascribed to it by virtue of the administrative authority it enjoyed. The concept



of "*uti possidetis* of 1821" thus necessarily refers to an administrative control which rested on the will of the Spanish Crown. For the purpose of drawing the line of "*uti possidetis* of 1821" we must look to the existence of that administrative control. Where administrative control was exercised by the colonial entity with the will of the Spanish monarch, there can be no doubt that it was a juridical control, and the line drawn according to the limits of that control would be a juridical line. If, on the other hand, either colonial entity prior to independence had asserted administrative control contrary to the will of the Spanish Crown, that would have been mere usurpation, and as, *ex hypothesi*, the colonial régime still existed and the only source of authority was the Crown (except during the brief period of the operation of the Constitution of Cadiz), such usurpation could not confer any status of "possession" as against the Crown's possession in fact and law.

After considering all the voluminous evidence submitted by the parties<sup>1</sup> the Tribunal found it impossible to establish the line of *uti possidetis* throughout the entire area in dispute. "It must be noted," the arbitrators said, "that particular difficulties are encountered in drawing the line of '*uti possidetis* of 1821,' by reason of the lack of trustworthy information during colonial times with respect to a large part of the territory in dispute. Much of this territory was unexplored. Other parts which had occasionally been visited were but vaguely known. In consequence, not only had boundaries of jurisdiction not been fixed with precision by the Crown, but there were great areas in which there had been no effort to assert any semblance of administrative authority."

However, to leave no doubt of their sincere desire to secure a peaceful and abiding settlement of the controversy, Guatemala and Honduras, while recording their agreement that the only juridical line which could be established between the two countries was that of the *uti possidetis* of 1821, had also charged the Tribunal with the further duty of modifying this line as it saw fit if the Tribunal found that one or both parties, in their subsequent development, had established, beyond that line, interests which should be taken into account in establishing the definite boundary.

Basing its action upon this power, the Tribunal decided to fix the definite boundary throughout the entire area in controversy, having regard to natural boundaries, so far as they were consistent with the settlement of the territory and existing equities created by the enterprise of the respective countries; to the facts of actual possession, giving due consideration to the question of whether possession by one party had been acquired in good faith and without invasion of the rights of the other party; and to the relation of territory actually occupied to that which is as yet unoccupied.

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<sup>1</sup> As provided in the treaty the representatives of Guatemala and Honduras submitted to the Tribunal their cases on Feb. 6, 1932, their counter-cases on Apr. 6, and their rejoinders on Apr. 21, together with documents and maps in support of their contentions.

In view of the inadequacy of the topographical data submitted to the Tribunal with respect to certain portions of the territory in dispute, for the first time in the settlement of such a controversy an aerial survey was made and the photographic map thus acquired used by the arbitrators in their deliberations. The aerial photographs of the survey were made by United States Army fliers, and the cartographic work was done by engineers appointed by the Tribunal.

The award was announced at a public session held at the Pan American Union on January 23, 1933, when the Hon. Charles Evans Hughes, as president of the Tribunal, transmitted to the representatives of Guatemala and Honduras an extensive volume containing the Opinion and Award of the Tribunal, accompanied by maps showing the boundary line decided upon. The description of the boundary line as established by the award is too detailed and lengthy to permit of reproduction here. Starting at the Salvadorean boundary at the point nearest the summit of Cerro Montecristo, it runs to where the Motagua River enters the Gulf of Honduras, dividing the controverted area essentially on a basis of the *status quo* of actual occupation.

The award settles the controversy finally and without appeal. Upon the receipt of the notice of the award there was an exchange of messages between the foreign offices of Guatemala and Honduras expressing the hope that now that their boundary problem was amicably settled a new era of friendship and cordial relations might begin between their sister republics.



## CHILE HONORS THE DIRECTOR GENERAL OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

ON February 26 the spacious reception rooms of the Chilean Embassy in Washington were filled with the members of the Latin American diplomatic corps, officials of the Pan American Union, and other guests whom the Chargé d'Affaires, Hon. Benjamín Cohen, had invited to witness the presentation of the Grand Cross of the Order "Al Mérito," conferred by his Government on the Hon. L. S. Rowe, for more than 12 years Director General of the Pan American Union.

This order has an interesting history. It was created on June 1, 1817, in the early days of Chilean independence, by Don Bernardo O'Higgins, with the object of rewarding civil and military services to the nation. In 1929 the name was changed from "Legión al Mérito" to "Orden al Mérito," and it was decreed that it should be bestowed only on foreigners deserving this distinction because of services rendered to Chile.



CHILE HONORS DR. L. S. ROWE

The presentation of the Grand Cross of the Order "Al Mérito" bestowed on the Director General of the Pan American Union was made at the Chilean Embassy in Washington by the Chargé d'Affaires, Señor Don Benjamín Cohen.

The Grand Cross is a handsome decoration in blue, white, and gold, bearing in its center the Chilean coat of arms in colors, surrounded by the words *Orden al Mérito—Chile*. It is worn with a turquoise blue ribbon.

On presenting the decoration the Chargé d'Affaires said:

DOCTOR ROWE:

My Government, desirous of manifesting the high esteem in which it holds your distinguished services to international peace and cooperation and your labors as Director General of the Pan American Union, has conferred upon you the Grand Cross of the Order "Al Mérito."

By so doing it expresses, as it were, the sentiments of admiration and affection cherished by all the American nations for an eminent servant of the ideals of our continent.

For my own part, I have a peculiar satisfaction in placing in your hands the diploma and insignia of the Grand Cross of the Order "Al Mérito."



To these words the Director General replied in the following terms:

MR. CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES:

It is difficult for me to find words adequate to express my appreciation of the honor conferred upon me by the Government of Chile. The ties that bind me to your country are so close and the affection which I feel for your people is so deep that this honor is doubly prized. It was my privilege to make five extended visits to Chile, visiting the country from the northern boundary to the southern archipelago, and I have always been impressed with the vigor, the initiative, and the high civic purpose of the Chilean people.

It would be presumptuous to attribute this honor to any personal achievement. I interpret it as a recognition of the importance and significance of the movement with which I have had the privilege of being associated for so many years. This movement is inextricably bound up with the prosperity and welfare of the nations of America. We need not be disturbed by any temporary setbacks, for like all great historic movements, Pan Americanism is subject to the ebb and flow of human affairs.

To me this great honor is but a stimulus to further unremitting effort in the cause of Pan American unity. I beg of you, my dear Mr. Chargé d'Affaires, to express to your Government my deep gratitude for the distinction which you are to-day conferring upon me.



## FAREWELL LUNCHEON TO THE HON. HENRY L. STIMSON

THE high esteem in which the Hon. Henry L. Stimson, retiring Secretary of State, was held by his fellow members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union was cordially evinced on February 20 last, when the Secretary, for the past four years Chairman of the Board, was honored at a special meeting and luncheon. When the Board had convened, the Vice Chairman, His Excellency the Minister of Guatemala, Dr. Adrián Recinos, spoke as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN:

It is my privilege on this occasion to perform a duty that would be very pleasant if it were not tinged with sadness by inevitable circumstances. It is an easy task to interpret the sentiments of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union toward its worthy Chairman, the Honorable Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of State of the United States of America. These sentiments are not unknown to you and they need not be dwelt upon; they are only a reflection of your own benevolent acts, recognized and appreciated by all. During the years in which we have had the honor and pleasure of cultivating official and personal relations with you, it has been most gratifying for us to observe your unfailing and innate kindness, your human and sympathetic understanding of the difficulties which arise between countries and individuals, your profound knowledge of Latin American psychology, and your broad vision and open mind toward all noble ideals of progress, peace, and good will among men.

The presence of a distinguished statesman as representative of the great nation, elder sister of the Republics of America, has always lent a powerful stimulus and support to the work of our Governing Board. And when that representative demonstrates a perfect comprehension of the problems and necessities of our countries, he naturally inspires us with a spontaneous sympathy and a legitimate regard which his attractive personality intensifies and makes more lasting.

I shall not attempt to enumerate the valuable services you have rendered to the Pan American cause, by carrying peace to our countries afflicted by internal strife or calling upon the nations in conflict to take the road leading to conciliation and harmonious agreement, or by collaborating in the noble undertakings which are to assure them a tranquil and prosperous future. However, I must mention the fact most familiar to the members of this Board, and that is the steadfast interest with which you have shared in our labors since the very day we unanimously elected you as our Chairman. Under all circumstances, even when matters of vital importance to the United States were absorbing your attention, you always found a propitious hour in which to talk over with us the problems, necessities, and hopes of the American countries who aspire to maintain among themselves a spiritual union and reciprocal cooperation.

Therefore, Mr. Chairman, my distinguished companions on the Governing Board desire to express their profound gratitude to you, in rendering this homage, just as you are about to terminate the duties of your high office. And they wish to assure you that our personal regard and admiration do not end with your departure from this house of the American Republics; they will stretch far into the



THE GOVERNING BOARD LUNCHEON TO THE HON. HENRY L. STIMSON

The retiring Secretary of State and Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Hon. Henry L. Stimson, was tendered a farewell luncheon February 20, 1933, by his colleagues on the Board. Beginning at left of center foreground and reading left around the table are: Dr. Roberto D. Meléndez, Special Representative of El Salvador on the Governing Board; Señor Don Benjamín Cohen, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile; Dr. Fabio Lozano, Minister of Colombia; Dr. Fernando González Roa, Ambassador of Mexico; Señor Don Manuel de Freyre y Santander, Ambassador of Peru; Mr. Stimson; Dr. Felipe A. Espil, Ambassador of Argentina; Dr. Pedro M. Araya, Minister of Venezuela; Dr. Céleo Dávila, Minister of Honduras; Dr. Luis M. Debayle, Chargé d'Affaires of Nicaragua; Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Señor Don Pablo M. Ynsfran, Chargé d'Affaires of Paraguay; Dr. Roberto Despradel, Minister of the Dominican Republic; Dr. J. Varela, Minister of Uruguay; Dr. R. de Lima e Silva, Ambassador of Brazil; Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala and Vice Chairman of the Governing Board; Señor Don Oscar B. Cintas, Ambassador of Cuba; M. Dantès Bellegarde, Minister of Haiti; Dr. Gonzalo Zaldumbide, Minister of Ecuador; Dr. Manuel González Zeledón, Chargé d'Affaires of Costa Rica; Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union.



future, together with the esteem of our peoples and our Governments, whose confidence you have won. In the name of our countries, in the name of my distinguished colleagues here assembled, I beg you to accept our fervent hope that you may always be attended by the happiness and success you rightly deserve, and the satisfaction of having contributed with your mind and heart to strengthening the friendship and increasing the good will between the countries of America.

In reply to these cordial expressions, the Chairman said:

GENTLEMEN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD:

I am deeply grateful to you for this demonstration of friendship. May I be permitted, at the same time, to express my appreciation to my distinguished colleague, the Vice Chairman, for the generous sentiments which he has just expressed. However undeserved they may be, I can assure you that they are none the less welcome.

The four years that I have been privileged to spend with you as chairman of this board have been filled with international events of far-reaching significance. In every section of the world we have been confronted with problems of the most difficult nature. Some of these have presented themselves on this Continent and at times the obstacles to their peaceful solution have seemed almost unsurmountable. Nevertheless I have sufficient faith in the sense of continental responsibility of the American Republics to feel assured that these problems will be solved by the orderly processes of mediation, conciliation, and arbitration. The recent settlement of the long-standing Guatemala-Honduras boundary dispute through an arbitral award is a matter of sincere congratulation to the two countries as well as to the entire Continent.

The nations of this Continent have built up a tradition of neighborly feeling and continental solidarity which, in the past, has enabled them peaceably to settle many international questions of great difficulty. To this great tradition we are heirs, and I feel certain that we will not prove ourselves unequal to this trust.

We must hold high and unassailable the sanctity of international agreements. If we combine therewith a spirit of accommodation and mutual respect in our international dealings there will be no question, no matter how difficult and delicate, which will not lend itself to amicable settlement.

The longer I have been associated with the work of the Pan American Union the more I am convinced of the great mission which this organization is destined to fulfill. Here, in this environment of cooperation and international good will, the American Republics are called upon to give to the world an example of the highest standards of international dealing.

Permit me, in closing, to extend to you my heartfelt thanks for the constant and unfailing cooperation which you have been good enough to accord to me during these last four years. I shall always look back upon the period spent in your midst as one of the most delightful experiences of my life.

In taking leave of you, I sincerely hope that the close personal relations which I have been privileged to form will in no way be affected by my withdrawal from the chairmanship of this Board.

At the close of the meeting, the Board adjourned to the Hall of Heroes, where luncheon was served at a table decorated with an elaborate centerpiece of flowers forming an American flag.

THE ANTI-WAR TREATY PROPOSED BY  
ARGENTINA AND THE BRAZILIAN REPLY

I

DRAFT OF AN ANTI-WAR TREATY <sup>1 2</sup>

(NON-AGGRESSION AND CONCILIATION)

In an endeavor to contribute to the consolidation of peace, and in order to express their adherence to the efforts that all civilized nations have made to further the spirit of universal harmony;

To the end of condemning wars of aggression and territorial acquisitions secured by means of armed conquest and of making them impossible, of sanctioning their invalidity through the positive provisions of this Treaty, and in order to replace them with pacific solutions based upon lofty concepts of justice and equity;

Being convinced that one of the most effective means of insuring the moral and material benefits the world derives from peace, is through the organization of a permanent system of conciliation of international disputes, to be applied upon a violation of the hereinafter mentioned principles;

His Excellency the President of the Argentine Republic, . . . . .

Have decided to record, in conventional form, these aims of non-aggression and concord, through the conclusion of the present Treaty, to which end they have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

. . . . .

Who, after having communicated their respective full powers, which were found in good and due form, have agreed on the following provisions:

ARTICLE I

The High Contracting Parties solemnly declare that they condemn wars of aggression in their mutual relations, and that the settlement of disputes and controversies shall be effected only through the pacific means established by International Law.

ARTICLE II

They declare that territorial questions must not be settled by resort to violence and that they shall recognize no territorial arrange-

<sup>1</sup> This draft-Treaty was originally denominated South American Anti-War Treaty to express the source of its inspiration.  
<sup>2</sup> Translation substantially as published by the Argentine Embassy, Washington.

ment not obtained through pacific means, nor the validity of an occupation or acquisition of territory brought about by armed force.

### ARTICLE III

In case any of the Parties to the dispute fails to comply with the obligations set forth in the foregoing articles, the Contracting States undertake to make every effort in their power for the maintenance of peace. To that end, and in their character of neutrals, they shall adopt a common and solidary attitude; they shall exercise the political, juridical or economic means authorized by International Law; they shall bring the influence of public opinion to bear; but in no case shall they resort to intervention either diplomatic or armed. The attitude they may have to take under other collective treaties of which said States are signatories is excluded from the foregoing provisions.

### ARTICLE IV

The High Contracting Parties obligate themselves, with respect to all controversies which have not been settled through diplomatic channels within a reasonable period, to submit to the conciliatory procedure created by this Treaty the disputes specifically mentioned, and any others that may arise in their reciprocal relations, without any further limitations than those recited in the following Article.

### ARTICLE V

The High Contracting Parties and the States which may hereafter accede to this Treaty may not formulate at the moment of signing, ratifying or adhering thereto, limitations to the procedure of conciliation other than those indicated below:

- a) Controversies for the settlement of which pacifist treaties, conventions, covenants, or agreements, of any nature, have been concluded. These shall in no case be deemed superseded by this Treaty; to the contrary, they shall be considered as supplemented thereby insofar as they are directed to insure peace. Questions or issues settled by previous treaties are also included in the exception.
- b) Disputes that the Parties prefer to settle by direct negotiation or through submission to an arbitral or judicial procedure by mutual consent.
- c) Issues that international law leaves to the exclusive domestic jurisdiction of each State, under its constitutional system. On this ground the Parties may object to the submission of these issues to the procedure of conciliation before the national or local jurisdiction has rendered a final decision. Cases of manifest denial of justice or delay in the judicial proceedings are excepted, and should they arise, the procedure of conciliation shall be started not later than within the year.



d) Questions affecting constitutional provisions of the Parties to the controversy. In case of doubt, each Party shall request its respective Tribunal or Supreme Court, whenever vested with authority therefor, to render a reasoned opinion on the matter.

At any time, and in the manner provided for in Article XV, any High Contracting Party may transmit an instrument stating that it has partially or totally dropped the limitations set thereby to the procedure of conciliation.

The Contracting Parties shall deem themselves bound to each other in connection with the limitations made by any of them, only to the extent of the exceptions recorded in this Treaty.

## ARTICLE VI

Should there be no Permanent Commission of Conciliation, or any other international body charged with such a mission under previous Treaties in force, the High Contracting Parties undertake to submit their controversies to examination and inquiry by a Commission of Conciliation to be organized in the manner hereinafter set forth, except in case of an agreement to the contrary entered into by the Parties in each instance:

The Commission of Conciliation shall consist of five members. Each Party to the controversy shall appoint one member, who may be chosen from among its own nationals. The three remaining members shall be appointed by agreement of the Parties from among nationals of third nations. The latter must be of different nationalities, and shall not have their habitual residence in the territory of the Parties concerned, nor be in the service of either one of them. The Parties shall select the President of the Commission of Conciliation from among these three members.

Should the Parties be unable to agree, they may request a third nation or any other existing international body to make these designations. Should the nominees so designated be objected to by the Parties, or by either of them, each Party shall submit a list containing as many names as vacancies are to be filled, and the names of those to sit on the Commission of Conciliation shall be determined by lot.

## ARTICLE VII

Those Tribunals or Supreme Courts of Justice vested by the domestic law of each State with authority to interpret, as a Court of sole or final recourse and in matters within their respective jurisdiction, the Constitution, the treaties or the general principles of the Law of Nations, may be preferred for designation by the High Contracting Parties to discharge the duties entrusted to the Commission of Conciliation established in this Treaty. In this event, the

Tribunal or Court may be constituted by the whole bench or may appoint some of its members to act independently or in Mixed Commissions organized with justices of other Courts or Tribunals, as may be agreed by the Parties to the controversy.

#### ARTICLE VIII

The Commission of Conciliation shall establish its own Rules of Procedure. These shall provide, in all cases, for hearing both sides.

The Parties to the controversy may furnish, and the Commission may request from them, all the antecedents and data necessary. The Parties may be represented by Agents, with the assistance of Counsel or experts, and may also submit every kind of evidence.

#### ARTICLE IX

The proceedings and discussions of the Commission of Conciliation shall not be made public unless there is a decision to that effect, assented to by the Parties. In the absence of any provision to the contrary, the Commission shall adopt its decisions by a majority vote; but it may not pass upon the substance of the issue unless all its members are in attendance.

#### ARTICLE X

It is the duty of the Commission to procure a conciliatory settlement of the disputes submitted to it. After impartial consideration of the questions involved in the dispute, it shall set forth in a report the outcome of its work and shall submit to the Parties proposals for a settlement on the basis of a just and equitable solution. The report of the Commission shall, in no case, be in the nature of a decision or arbitral award, either in regard to the exposition or interpretation of facts or in connection with juridical considerations or findings.

#### ARTICLE XI

The Commission of Conciliation shall submit its report within a year to be reckoned from the day of its first sitting, unless the Parties decide, by common accord, to shorten or extend that term.

Once started, the procedure of conciliation may only be interrupted by a direct settlement between the Parties, or by their later decision to submit, by common accord, the dispute to arbitration or to an international court.

#### ARTICLE XII

On communicating its report to the Parties, the Commission of Conciliation shall fix a period of time, which shall not exceed six months, within which the Parties shall pass upon the bases of settle-

ment it has proposed. Once this period of time has expired the Commission shall set forth in a final act the decision of the Parties.

Should the period of time lapse without the Parties having accepted the settlement, or adopted by common accord another friendly solution, the Parties to the controversy shall regain their freedom of action to proceed as they may see fit within the limitations set forth in Articles I and II of this Treaty.

#### ARTICLE XIII

From the outset of the procedure of conciliation until the expiration of the term set by the Commission for the Parties to make a decision, they shall abstain from any measure which may prejudice the carrying out of the settlement to be proposed by the Commission and, in general, from every act capable of aggravating or prolonging the controversy.

#### ARTICLE XIV

During the procedure of conciliation the members of the Commission shall receive honoraria in the amount to be agreed upon by the Parties to the controversy. Each Party shall bear its own expenses and a moiety of the joint expenses or honoraria.

#### ARTICLE XV

This Treaty shall be ratified by the High Contracting Parties, as soon as possible, in conformity with their respective constitutional procedures.

The original Treaty and the instruments of ratification shall be deposited in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Argentine Republic which shall give notice of the ratifications to the other Signatory States. The Treaty shall enter into effect for the High Contracting Parties in the order in which they deposit their ratifications.

#### ARTICLE XVI

Any State not a signatory of this Treaty may adhere to it by sending the appropriate instrument to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Argentine Republic, to the end that it may notify the other Contracting States.

#### ARTICLE XVII

This Treaty is concluded for an indefinite period, but it may be denounced by means of one year's previous notice at the expiration of which it shall cease to be in force as regards the Party denouncing the same, but shall remain in force as regards the other signatories. Notice of the denunciation shall be addressed to the Ministry of

Foreign Affairs of the Argentine Republic which will transmit it to the other High Contracting Parties.

In witness whereof, the above mentioned Plenipotentiaries have signed this Treaty . . . . .

## II

### STATEMENT OF REASONS

#### PURPOSE OF THE TREATY

This draft Anti-War Treaty, initiated by the Argentine Foreign Office, has definite aims: to profit by a recent and fundamental experience of the American Republics which has shown them to be united by common lofty pacifist purposes; to base upon the existence of this spiritual community their hopeful efforts to restore harmony between two sister nations, and whatever may be the immediate outcome of this endeavor, also to vest with permanency the generous movement of joint purpose which has lined up all the peoples of the Americas behind a great solidary action.

It aims at the consolidation of world peace inasmuch as it begins by creating a peaceful system to insure it in a continent, recording the obligation not to resort to a war of aggression or to settle territorial controversies by armed force. To that end it creates a permanent system of conciliation based on justice and equity which, while it aims to find a pacific settlement for any international conflict, does not preclude the hypothesis of a possible universalization which might result from the contribution it signifies.

It does not represent an aspiration that might lessen or stop praiseworthy existing régimes, because in no wise does it assume to repeal, or even to suspend the effects of any of the pacifist treaties or agreements in force, which it intends to strengthen and whose radius of action it aims to broaden. It rests, therefore, on a foundation which must remain immovable, as in all great structures already existing for the consolidation of peace, and pays a tribute of cooperation to the ensemble of covenants it wishes to maintain untouched. Thus it coordinates with the Hague Conventions of 1889 and 1907, which established the Commission of Inquiry; the Treaties of 1913-1914, which broadened the field of action of the Commission of Inquiry, by means of the "Bryan formula"; the pacifist agreement of 1915, known as the A. B. C. Treaty, that made a new application of the Commission of Inquiry; the Covenant of the League of Nations, of 1919, which established new organs of peace and international



cooperation; the "Gondra Treaty," of 1923, which established the permanent Pan American Commissions of Conciliation; the Central American Convention, of 1923, which created a special system of Commission of Inquiry; the Treaty of Mutual Guarantee, of 1925, signed at Locarno, which insures territorial integrity; the Briand-Kellogg Pact for the outlawry of war, crystallized in the Treaty of Paris, of 1928; the General Act of Geneva, of 1928, which recommended model bilateral or multilateral treaties of conciliation and arbitration; the General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation, of 1929, which established new standards for dealing with international controversies; and other agreements signed with the same purpose.

The existence of so many and weighty efforts for the pacification of the world is no obstacle to the conclusion of an Anti-War Treaty open to universal accession. Pan Americanism must avail itself of recent experience. It undoubtedly represents a wide community in the moral union of the Continent; but we must acknowledge that it also implies, in a way, a bilateral expression of the inescapable difference between the Latin and the Anglo-Saxon worlds in matters of temperament, geographic and economic location, and stability of political institutions. In order to secure within a whole continent the great results just attained through an expression of solidarity which must be made final, it is more efficacious that the convergence of forces and the flow of common purposes from its various ends be coincident. The speedy manner in which unity of purpose was brought about in the agreement of August 3, 1932, is a lesson which points the way. The Briand-Kellogg Pact, a splendid expression of American ideology, must be strengthened by the spontaneous contribution of all the nations of South America, and such a noble conception in the continued efforts for peace made by the great nation to the North, must receive the cooperation of the Great Republics to the South, also possessing their conceptions of law which originate in sources formed by their pacifist tradition, their uniform respect for arbitration, and the practice of international principles in the delimitation of their boundaries. Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Peru, signatories of the Declaration of August 6, 1932, in which they organize a harmonious joint action and undertake to remain united in regard to the incidents connected with the Paraguayan-Bolivian dispute, were already bound, from a distant past, by international doctrines and standards of their very own, common to all of them and with features of undoubted similarity. Through their simultaneous support of the efforts of all the other nations of America united by a fortunate coincidence of purposes, they have emphasized the trend which is to hasten the consolidation of international justice in the whole continent.

The Argentine Government wishes thus to contribute to the uniform acceptance of the Kellogg-Briand Pact, and, what is of greater importance, to its effective application through the conclusion among the South American Republics of a similar and coinciding agreement, intended to cooperate in the attainment of the same lofty aims. In the endeavors for world peace, which are without doubt an honor to our time, the Argentine Government notices that there arise from diverse geographic conditions and political entities, isolated structures which it should be attempted to consolidate, so that the majestic organization of peace may rest upon all of them. Its separate pillars are the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Locarno agreements and the Briand-Kellogg Pact incorporated in the Treaty of Paris of August 27, 1928, and which represents, when taken as a whole, the American line of vision. It is not difficult to discern the need of coordination for the attainment of which so many and renewed efforts have been made. The supplementary structure for the restoration of the balance needed to bring about harmony of aims was missing, and it should emerge, as has fortunately been the case under the circumstances already mentioned, from this part of the southern hemisphere. It is to be hoped that through intelligent understanding the efficient means resulting from such a coordination, with all its potential possibilities, may be made use of regardless of any pride of paternity. The aspiration expressed in this initiative of the Argentine government should surprise no one since it means a reply to the call addressed by the Ninth Assembly of the League of Nations to all States of the world in 1928. At the time the General Act of Geneva was signed, a request was made for contributions such as the one now tendered, which should be of greater value as it does not rest on a purely ideological conception but is recommended by a practical experience which it is desired to divest of its casual character. In fact, at the aforesaid Assembly and upon presentation of the various models of conciliation and arbitration treaties, an invitation was addressed to all countries, whether or not members of the League, to conclude new international compacts in accordance with the models submitted, or in any other form deemed appropriate; the possibility of creating other instruments of peace which instead of altering would supplement and strengthen those already in existence was thus acknowledged.

#### ARTICLE I

It has been said that the Kellogg-Briand Pact represents for the nations of America, as it does for those of the world at large, the exclusion of force and a prohibition to resort to war, in a final summing up of many efforts to bring about respect for international standards. For the Republics of South America it translates their best doctrines

and the purpose back of their valuable juridical conceptions. Therefore, whatever may bring new adherents to that pacifist instrument and which may facilitate its application, also presupposes obviating those obstacles which have so far stood in the way of its universal use. The difficulty of reconciling the Kellogg-Briand Pact with that part of the Covenant of the League of Nations which concerns the measures of conciliation needed in connection with the self-defense of the States and national policy, is well known. It is also bound to the lack of emphatic sanctions as well as to the advantage of coordinating it with a system for the pacific settlement of disputes, organized by the treaty itself and which may have immediate application. It is sought to obviate those disadvantages by making its acceptance easier in all cases. There is no attempt to repeal or to set up a substitute for that grandiose conception; the idea is to draw from it a supplementary form which aspires to take into consideration the objections raised by facilitating the existence of a multiplicity of systems bent upon bringing about harmony, and the progressive application of which may allow, at a given moment, the making of a supreme effort to stem the outbreak of war. Those are the aims sought in Article I of the Argentine draft Anti-War Treaty.

Article I condemns wars of aggression in the relations between the Contracting States, who obligate themselves to settle any conflict which may arise between them by pacific means. In this respect it conforms with the Covenant of the League of Nations, with the Treaty of Locarno, with the Kellogg-Briand Pact, and with several resolutions of Pan American Conferences. The Argentine draft retains the right of self-defense of States, which must be inalienable. It does not reproduce the conception of war "as an instrument of national policy" with which it is qualified in the Kellogg-Briand Pact. But these are not fundamental discrepancies, since the constructions and reservations made by several nations on signing the Pact, coincide with the statement in this draft. The diplomatic correspondence during the negotiations bears out this view. According to those antecedents France took the initiative of negotiating an agreement against "wars of aggression," basing her action on a Resolution taken in 1927 by the League of Nations and under which wars of aggression were declared to be an international crime (Notes of the French Ambassador to the Secretary of State of the United States, January 5 and 21, 1928).—Germany set forth her views in the following terms: "The German Government proceeds on the belief that a pact after "the pattern submitted by the Government of the United States would "not put in question the sovereign right of any state to defend itself. "It is self-evident that if one state violates the pact the other contracting parties regain their freedom of action with reference to "that state." (Note to the American Ambassador in Berlin, April 27,



1928).—Great Britain replied that: "After studying the wording of "Article I of the United States draft, His Majesty's Government do "not think that its terms exclude action which a state may be forced "to take in self-defense. Mr. Kellogg has made it clear in the speech to "which I have referred above (delivered April 28 before the American "Society of International Law) that he regards the right of self-defense "as inalienable, and His Majesty's Government are disposed to think "that on this question no addition to the text is necessary. . . . "The machinery of the covenant (of the League of Nations) and "of the treaty of Locarno, however, go somewhat further than a "renunciation of war as a policy, in that they provide certain sanc- "tions for a breach of their obligations. A clash might thus con- "ceivably arise between the existing treaties and the proposed pact "unless it is understood that the obligations of the new engagement "will cease to operate in respect of a party which breaks its pledges "and adopts hostile measures against one of its contractants. For "the Government of this country respect for the obligations arising "out of the Covenant of the League of Nations and out of the Locarno "treaties is fundamental." And referring to the phrase "as an in- "strument of national policy," Great Britain adds: "There are certain "regions of the world the welfare and integrity of which constitute a "special and vital interest for our peace and safety. His Majesty's "Government have been at pains to make it clear in the past that "interference with these regions cannot be suffered. Their protection "against attack is to the British Empire a measure of self-defense. "It must be clearly understood that His Majesty's Government in "Great Britain accept the new treaty upon the distinct understanding "that it does not prejudice their freedom of action in this respect. "The Government of the United States have comparable interests "any disregard of which by a foreign power they have declared that "they would regard as an unfriendly act. His Majesty's Govern- "ment believe, therefore, that in defining their position they are "expressing the intention and meaning of the United States Govern- "ment."—Japan replied that: "The proposal of the United States "is understood to contain nothing that would refuse to independent "states the right of self-defense, and nothing which is incompatible "with the obligations of agreements guaranteeing the public peace, "such as are embodied in the Covenant of the League of Nations "and the treaties of Locarno."

With these views in mind, on June 23, 1928, the Government of the United States communicated again with the Governments of Australia, Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain, India, Irish Free State, Italy, Japan, New Zealand, Poland, and South Africa, inviting their attention to the speech of the Secretary



of State, of April 28, 1928, wherein he had reached the following conclusions: "(1) Self-defense. There is nothing in the American "draft of an antiwar treaty which restricts or impairs in any way "the right of self-defense. That right is inherent in every sovereign "state and is implicit in every treaty. Every nation is free at all "times and regardless of treaty provisions to defend its territory from "attack or invasion and it alone is competent to decide whether "circumstances require recourse to war in self-defense." . . . (2) "The League Covenant. There is, in my opinion, no necessary "inconsistency between the Covenant and the idea of an unqualified "renunciation of war. The Covenant can, it is true, be construed "as authorizing war in certain circumstances but it is an authorization "and not a positive requirement." "(3) The Treaties of Locarno. "If the parties to the treaties of Locarno are under any positive "obligation to go to war, such obligation certainly would not attach "until one of the parties has resorted to war in violation of its solemn "pledges thereunder."

The Kellogg-Briand Pact was accepted with the foregoing constructions and reservations. (See notes: of Germany, June 11, 1928; of France, July 14, 1928; of Italy, July 15, 1928; of Belgium, July 17, 1928; of Poland, July 17, 1928; of Great Britain, July 18, 1928, in "Notes exchanged between the United States and other Powers on the subject of a multilateral treaty for the renunciation of war," Washington, 1928.)

The Argentine draft establishes, in conventional form, the right of self-defense against foreign aggression, and in so doing it agrees both with the foregoing antecedents of the Treaty of Paris of 1928, and with the Resolution adopted by the Sixth International Conference of American States at its meeting in Havana, 1928, which reads:

"The Sixth International Conference of American States, considering: That the American nations should always be inspired in "solid cooperation for justice and the general good; That nothing is so "opposed to this cooperation as the use of violence; That there is no "international controversy, however serious it may be, which can not "be peacefully arranged if the parties desire in reality to arrive at a "peaceful settlement; That war of aggression constitutes an international crime against the human species; Resolves: 1. All aggression is considered illicit and as such is declared prohibited. 2. The "American States will employ all peaceful means to settle conflicts "which may arise between them."—It also agrees with the idea of the Treaty of Mutual Guarantee, signed at Locarno, October 16, 1925, by Germany, Belgium, France, Great Britain, and Italy, Article 2, section 1 of which, after condemning war, excludes the case of legitimate self-defense.

The draft does not reproduce the conception of war "as an instrument of national policy," because it is felt that in our time no State can be suspected of making war a national aspiration. On the other hand, as Great Britain pointed out during the negotiations for the Kellogg-Briand Pact, the national policy of some colonizing States in remote regions of the world, is, by its very nature, excluded from the stipulations of a compact of this type. In any event, war is a relationship of an international character.

## ARTICLE II

Two principles which supplement each other are included in this article. The first declares that territorial disputes shall not be settled by violent means. It was stated July 30, 1932, by the Argentine Ambassador, at the outset of the historical meeting held by the neutrals in connection with the conflict between Paraguay and Bolivia, under the following instructions from his government: "*Please submit, as a proposal on behalf of the Argentine government, that the Commission declare that territorial disputes in America shall not be settled through force.*" The second principle, which flows from the first, provides that no territorial arrangement secured by other than peaceful means, nor the validity of any occupation or acquisition of territory by force of arms, shall be recognized. These doctrines, which exclude resort to arms, were originated at the very dawn of American emancipation. From the first years of their independent life, the Hispanic-American Republics proclaimed and upheld the principle of "*uti possidetis*" as the one governing their territorial rights, and rejected other solutions which were not based on titles arising from that principle, except in the case of some honor-giving and equitable compromises, of which instances are not missing. The need for respecting territorial integrity was acknowledged by successive Congresses of American nations, beginning with the Congress of Panama called by Bolívar in 1826; at the Congresses of Lima, 1847-1848 and 1864-1865, convened at the behest of Peru after the earnest endeavors of Mexico to carry on the work of solidarity undertaken by Bolívar; and in the continental Treaty of 1856, concluded with lofty Americanist aims at Chile's initiative. All these praiseworthy efforts were supplemented with resolutions in favor of arbitration as a means for the settlement of international disputes. And it was thus that the Latin American Republics, with but very few exceptions, put an end to their territorial controversies. Brazil went still further and wrote the principle of arbitration into her Constitution.

The Argentine Republic rendered a well deserved tribute to these demands of the juristic consciousness of America by repudiating the resort to war in every phase of her international life. Her

thinkers and statesmen declared that war is a crime and repeatedly condemned the right of conquest. It is known that the Treaty of the Triple Alliance, of May 1st, 1865, recognized Argentina's right to a given boundary with Paraguay (Article 16); yet, when the moment came to conclude peace, the Argentine government did not avail itself of the advantages secured through victory and negotiated with the conquered nation a Treaty of territorial delimitation under which a part of the disputed territory was submitted to arbitration while the remainder was settled through direct negotiations. This Argentine attitude has been summed up in the popular consciousness by the slogan "victory gives no rights." With the same pacific procedure the Argentine Republic settled all of her remaining boundary disputes, without ever thinking that she might impose her views through coercion. She concluded with Chile the "Pacts of May," in 1902, climaxed by arbitration and a Treaty for the reduction of naval armaments.

The First International Conference of American States, which met in Washington in 1889-1890, adopted a declaration against the right of conquest, worded as follows: "First. That the principle of conquest shall not, during the continuance of the treaty of arbitration, be recognized as admissible under American public law. Second. That all cessions of territory made during the continuance of the treaty of arbitration shall be void if made under threats of war or the presence of an armed force. Third. Any nation, from which such cessions shall be exacted, may demand that the validity of the cessions so made shall be submitted to arbitration. Fourth. Any renunciation of the right to arbitration, made under the conditions named in the second section, shall be null and void." Although this declaration did not have the compulsory force of a Treaty it reflected well enough the pacific aspirations of the American Republics represented at the Conference. As a matter of fact, both prior to and after this declaration had been made, a large number of territorial disputes were settled judicially instead of being left to the uncertainties of war.

Wars of conquest are incompatible with the Covenant of the League of Nations, Article 10 of which provides: "The Members of the League undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all Members of the League. In case of any such aggression or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression the Council shall advise upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled." This wise provision, aimed to maintain the territorial "status quo," agrees with the Argentine doctrine and with the resolution adopted at Washington in 1890.



Another antecedent which should be borne in mind is Project No. 30 prepared in 1925 by the American Institute of International Law, worded as follows: "The American Republics, animated by "the desire of preserving the peace and prosperity of the continent, "for which it is indispensable that their mutual relations be based "upon principles of justice and upon respect for law, solemnly "declare as a fundamental concept of American international law "that, without criticizing territorial acquisitions effected in the "past, and without reference to existing controversies:—In the "future territorial acquisitions obtained by means of war or under "the menace of war or in presence of an armed force, to the detriment of any American Republic, shall not be lawful; and that "consequently territorial acquisitions effected in the future by these "means can not be invoked as conferring title; and that those "obtained in the future by such means shall be considered null in "fact and in law."

The Argentine doctrine was adopted during the recent territorial dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay, when nineteen American nations signed the declaration of August 3, 1932, which reads: "The nations of America further declare that in connection with "this controversy they shall recognize no territorial arrangement "which is not secured by pacific means, nor the validity of acquisitions of territory resulting from occupation or conquest by armed "force."

This Anti War Treaty will doubtlessly mark a new step in the juridical evolution of the world, and caps the results obtained by the preceding doctrines which have been gradually dislodging force from the field of international relations. The Argentine phase of this evolution had been already set forth in the book "*La Conception Argentine de l'Arbitrage et de l'Intervention à l'Ouverture de la Conférence de Washington, 1928*" (its author is the present incumbent of the Argentine Foreign Office). These conceptions are stated in the Monroe Doctrine against occupation and armed interventions; in the Calvo and Drago doctrines concerning diplomatic or armed interventions and concerning the collection of public debts by force; in the ideas propounded by Ruy Barbosa as to the Constitutions setting restrictions upon sovereignty; in the doctrines of Carlos Tejedor and Bernardo de Irigoyen regarding protection of foreigners and of corporations; in the Pan American treaties on pecuniary claims. These succeeding triumphs of right over might will be supplemented by this Treaty, which is intended to eradicate wars of conquest from the last territorial disputes still awaiting settlement.

The new doctrine is connected with the statements made by the United States and the League of Nations in the recent Sino-Japanese dispute as to Manchuria. It is true that in this particular case reference



had to be made to treaties already in force, respect for which it was necessary to demand inasmuch as they contained provisions concerning the territorial integrity of China. As a matter of fact the compact known as the "Nine-Power Treaty," of January 6, 1922, signed at the Washington Conference on the Limitation of Armaments, was involved in the dispute, since it set forth the obligation to respect the sovereignty, the independence, and the territorial and administrative integrity of China, in order to maintain unabated the principle of the "open door" in the Far East. The government of the United States informed the disputants that "it would not recognize any "situation, treaty, or agreement entered into by those Governments "in violation of the provisions of the Treaty of Paris, of August 27, "1928, of which both China and Japan were signatories, as well as "the United States." In this connection, although with reference to the case of China, the Secretary of State of the United States, Mr. Henry L. Stimson, on February 24, 1932, addressed a letter to Senator William E. Borah, in which he foresaw the possibility of this attitude becoming general. He said: "If a similar decision should be reached "and a similar position taken by the other governments of the world, "a caveat will be placed upon such action which, we believe, will "effectively bar the legality hereafter of any title or right sought to "be obtained by pressure or treaty violation, and which, as has been "shown by history in the past, will eventually lead to the restoration "to China of rights and titles of which she may have been deprived." It is, therefore, a happy coincidence, which becomes further accentuated through actions of the League of Nations when, meeting in an extraordinary session to mediate in the Sino-Japanese conflict, it adopted the report of its corresponding Committee on the resolution of March 11, 1932, which also signifies, at least partially, a condemnation of wars of conquest although, as in the case of the warning by the United States, it is related to the Nine-Power Treaty, whose violation it was necessary to condemn at the outset as contrary to the general principle. The resolution reads: "Considering that the "provisions of the Covenant are entirely applicable to the present "dispute, more particularly as regards: (1) The principle of a "scrupulous respect for treaties; (2) The undertaking entered into by "Members of the League of Nations to respect and preserve as against "external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political "independence of all the Members of the League; (3) Their obligation to submit any dispute which may arise between them to procedures for peaceful settlement; Adopting the principles laid down "by the acting President of the Council, M. Briand, in his declaration "of December 10th, 1931; Recalling the fact that twelve Members of "the Council again invoked those principles in their appeal to the "Japanese Government on February 16th, 1932, when they declared "that no infringement of the territorial integrity and no change in

“ ‘the political independence of any Member of the League brought  
“ ‘about in disregard of Article 10 of the Covenant ought to be  
“ ‘recognized as valid and effectual by Members of the League of  
“ ‘Nations’; Considering that the principles governing international  
“ ‘relations and the peaceful settlement of disputes between  
“ ‘Members of the League above referred to are in full harmony with  
“ ‘the Pact of Paris, which is one of the cornerstones of the peace  
“ ‘organization of the world and under Article 2 of which ‘the High  
“ ‘Contracting Parties agree that the settlement or solution of all  
“ ‘disputes or conflicts, of whatever nature and whatever origin  
“ ‘they may be, which may arise among them shall never be sought  
“ ‘except by pacific means;’ ” Therefore, the Assembly: “Proclaims  
“ ‘the binding nature of the principles and provisions referred to  
“ ‘above and declares that it is incumbent upon the Members of the  
“ ‘League of Nations not to recognize any situation, treaty or agree-  
“ ‘ment which may be brought about by means contrary to the  
“ ‘Covenant of the League of Nations or to the Pact of Paris.’ ” . . .

Such are the points of similarity between the Argentine doctrine, the recent Pan American declaration, and the principles upheld by the United States and by the League of Nations in regard to prohibiting resort to force to settle territorial disputes.

### ARTICLE III

This article is intended to establish sanctions in connection with the prohibitions set forth hereinbefore, and to surround the same with guarantees that will divest them of their appearance of purely abstract formulas. But such guarantees shall have no bearing upon the sovereignty of the Contracting States, pursuant to the principles of non-intervention, diplomatic or armed, that the Argentine Republic has constantly practiced and upheld in her relations with the other States, and at the international congresses in which she has been represented. Keeping faith with these traditions, the draft places greater reliance upon honor of signature than on any coercive sanction. It also attaches great importance to the influence of public opinion without ignoring, nevertheless, the possible need of resorting to any of the political, legal, or economic sanctions authorized by International Law in case of noncompliance with obligations entered into. Moreover, it does not interfere with any of the measures the Contracting States may be bound to take by virtue of treaties,—such as the Covenant of the League of Nations or other multilateral agreements, to which they may be Parties.

### ARTICLE IV

This article is based on the Geneva General Act of 1928 in connection with the limitation of the reservations that the Parties may

eventually make at the moment of signing, ratifying, or adhering to the Anti-War Treaty. It is desirable that reservations be reduced to a minimum in order to preserve the efficiency of the compact.

It reproduces, with slight changes, Article I of the General Convention on Inter-American Conciliation, signed in Washington, January 5, 1929. The article referred to reads: "The High Contracting Parties agree to submit to the procedure of conciliation established by this Convention all controversies of any kind which have arisen or may arise between them for any reason and which it may not have been possible to settle through diplomatic channels;" but following the example of certain recent multilateral treaties, it confines diplomatic exchanges to a reasonable period in order to avoid their excessive duration.

#### ARTICLE V

The exceptions and reservations formulated by some nations to the Geneva General Act and to the General Convention on Inter-American Conciliation have been considered in connection with their systematic arrangement.

Section a) of this article shows the determination not to weaken, derogate, or suspend any of the treaties, conventions, pacts or agreements in force. It really attempts to strengthen them, and to broaden their practical scope. It merely aims at removing whatever incompatibility might arise with those already concluded, in order to insure the cooperation of all the systems devised for the maintenance of world peace.

Section b) is self-explanatory: it will not be necessary to apply the procedure of conciliation whenever the Parties in controversy agree to settle their differences through direct negotiation, or to submit them to arbitration or to judicial adjudication.

Section c) allows the withdrawal from the procedure of conciliation of those matters which, under each constitutional régime, are within the exclusive jurisdiction of national or local courts, in which case the State may decline the international procedure pending the exhaustion of all remedies provided for in the domestic jurisdiction; with the sole exception of those cases of manifest denial of justice or of unjustified delay in the judicial procedure, which is implied in the general conception of the article. These are the unchallengeable standards which, because they flow from the principles of sovereignty and equality of States, enjoy the support of all the American Republics, as expressed in treaties and at international congresses.

Section d) fixes the maximum scope treaties may have in the nations governed by rigid written Constitutions and where there are Tribunals or Supreme Courts of Justice with authority to control

the constitutionality of governmental actions. In those countries, no treaty can validly affect constitutional provisions, and their governments have no right to enter into, to approve, or to ratify that kind of international covenants. This exception, known as the "Argentine formula" (See "*La Crise de la Codification et la Doctrine Argentine du Droit International*," 1931, by the author of this draft-treaty), is typical in every institutional régime based upon the super-legality of the Constitution, a system which is widely adopted in the American Continent and which begins to make headway in some of the European post-war democracies. It agrees with proposals made by several delegations to the Second Hague Conference during the discussions on arbitration. This formula has been set forth in the treaties of arbitration concluded by the Argentine Republic with the following countries: Uruguay, June 8, 1899; Paraguay, November 6, 1899; Bolivia, February 3, 1902; Chile, May 28, 1902; Brazil, September 7, 1905; Italy, September 18, 1905; Ecuador, July 12, 1911; Venezuela, July 22, 1911; Colombia, January 20, 1912; France, July 3, 1914; Spain, July 9, 1916. The same trend is followed in some treaties recently concluded by several nations of Europe and America, in which it is provided that the compromise for arbitration shall be concluded in accordance with constitutional enactments, and that any award or decision affecting said constitutional provisions will be considered as null and void. (Treaty of Arbitration between the United States of America and Albania, October 22, 1928, Article 1; Treaty of Arbitration between the United States and Sweden, October 27, 1928, Article 1, Section 2; Treaty of Conciliation and Arbitration between Denmark and Haiti, April 5, 1928, Article 6; Treaty of Conciliation, Judicial Settlement, and Arbitration, between Spain and Norway, December 27, 1928, Article 20.)

Although the "Argentine formula" has nothing that can be considered indefinite or arbitrary, Section d) adds a stipulation intended to prevent misunderstandings, providing that in case of doubt as to whether or not a question has any bearing on a constitutional precept, the Contracting Party claiming such an exception shall request a reasoned opinion of its own Tribunal or Supreme Court of Justice, in order to place upon its contention a seal of impartiality.

#### ARTICLE VI

The Commission of Conciliation established by this Anti-War Treaty shall not enter upon its functions unless there is no other Commission set up by previous treaties binding the Contracting Parties, or in default of international bodies such as the Council



of the League of Nations, Permanent Commissions of a Pan American origin, or others discharging similar duties under treaties already in force. The same criterion shall govern the manner of constituting the Commission of Conciliation, the States in controversy being free, furthermore, to agree in each case on a special organization therefor. The model included in Article 4, Section 1, of the Geneva General Act has been followed. The feature of regionalism has been excluded in order to facilitate universal adherence to this Anti-War Treaty, without repealing thereby those treaties based upon continental solutions.

#### ARTICLE VII

This article provides for a novel procedure. It gives preference in the exercise of conciliatory functions to the Tribunals or Supreme Courts of Justice which under the domestic law of each State are competent to interpret, as Courts of sole or final recourse, the Constitution, the treaties, and the general principles of the Law of Nations.

Besides the guarantee represented by the intervention of Judges who have been honored by their respective nations with positions of the greatest trust, through appointment to the bench of the highest body in their domestic judicial organization, there are fundamental reasons in favor of this arrangement which up to the present time have not been considered, or perhaps understood, in the European World, except in some of the new Constitutions, wherein the concept of super-legality has begun to be incorporated. An important meaning is attached to the introduction of this principle. The only reservation made by the Argentine Republic in her treaties of arbitration, concerning the provisions of her Constitution, has been prompted thereby in some of its fundamentals.

This provision signifies lessening the basic European problem of restrictions upon sovereignty, which stirs contemporary philosophy with its subtle interpretations, to find that it should give way to the conception of gradual interdependence and expansion of international life. The American countries which follow the masterful type set by the Constitution of the United States, and even improve thereon, need not make such a sacrifice of something which substantially rests upon an understandable psychological attitude determined by the defensive instinct of weak nations against the encroachments of force, that impels them unwaveringly and irreconcilably to maintain this fundamental principle. And this is because of the fact that in the American institutional system the sovereign can be brought before the judiciary. It is already limited by the possibility of abating the acts of sovereignty through the declaration of unconstitutionality. The Constitution prevails over the Law of Nations and the treaties within this system.

Such was also the luminous thought of Ruy Barbosa who, on behalf of Brazil, crystallized the American conception at the Second Hague Conference. His verbatim remarks were as follows: "If political sovereignty were that indefinite arbitrator, one could hardly understand that admirable Constitution of the United States which has been the example and the model of almost all American constitutions. The most specific character of that organization does not reside in the federative distribution of sovereignty that balances the local republics within the great national republic. That has been witnessed in other examples of the federative system; but that which constitutes the most original and the most commendable trait of this constitution which counts among its most illustrious founders the name of Hamilton himself, now invoked by those who place sovereignty above justice, is the fact that in this incomparable work of the men who organized the United States of America, justice has been placed as a sacred limit and as an impassable barrier to sovereignty. To that end they declared rights which sovereignty could not restrict, and they clothed the courts, especially the courts of last instance, the federal courts, with the immense authority of supreme interpreters of the constitution, with the right of examining the acts of sovereignty, even though they were federal laws, and of refusing to enforce them, whenever such decrees, such laws, such formal acts of sovereignty should not respect the rights consecrated by the constitutional declaration. And this is a first, but already an immense, an immeasurable restriction of sovereignty which would not be conceded in any other epoch, and which even in our days, in many countries far advanced, one might hold to be incompatible with its very essence. Still, it already exists for an entire continent."

#### ARTICLE VIII

Following Article 11 of the Geneva General Act, this Anti-War Treaty provides that both Parties be heard in the procedure of conciliation. It also authorizes them to be represented before the Commission of Conciliation by Agents and defense Counsel. With regard to the standards of procedure it must be borne in mind that Article V, Section a) does not repeal the treaties previously in force between the Parties, and that they may agree to adopt the standards set forth therein.

#### ARTICLE IX

This coincides with Articles 12 and 13 of the Geneva General Act, in regard to the manner in which decisions shall be voted upon, and adds a provision concerning publicity of the proceedings.

## ARTICLE X

This agrees with Article 15 of the Geneva General Act and with Articles 6, 7, and 9, of the General Convention on Inter-American Conciliation. It is the natural duty of every Commission of Conciliation to procure the friendly agreement of the Parties to the dispute by submitting a just and equitable solution to them. This proposal should in no case be in the nature of an arbitral award or of a judicial decision. It must offer a respite in the dispute, and be observed by the Parties in the interest of peace.

## ARTICLE XI

This agrees with the Inter-American Convention which fixes the period of one year for the Commission to render its report, and runs counter to the Geneva General Act that provides for six months, which may prove to be too brief in case of conflict in remote regions. This Anti-War Treaty allows the Parties to the dispute to shorten or lengthen this period by agreement, as provided also in some multilateral treaties of conciliation. The Parties concerned may also put an end to the duties entrusted to the Commission through their agreement to settle the controversy by direct negotiation or by submission thereof to an arbitral or judicial adjudication, in accordance with Article V, Section b) of this Treaty.

## ARTICLE XII

The first part of this article agrees with Articles 10 and 11 of the Inter-American Convention. The second finds its inspiration in similar provisions of the "Gondra Treaty." The term of six months in which the Parties may pass upon the bases for a settlement submitted by the Commission, together with the period of one year in which the latter must issue its report, insure a respite long enough to quiet down the spirits and to prepare, without haste, a solution advantageous to both Parties.

Once the period set by the Commission has lapsed, without its proposal for a settlement being accepted, or any other friendly solution agreed upon, the Parties recover their freedom of action; but in no event is it lawful for them to resort to war in violation of Articles I and II of this Treaty, except in case of legitimate self-defense against an aggression.

## ARTICLE XIII

The prohibition to opening hostilities or making warlike preparations, contained in other similar treaties, is not reproduced herein,

since wars of aggression being outlawed under Article I, a hostile attitude, prior to the exhaustion of the procedure of conciliation and of the other pacific means provided for under International Law, would be tantamount to a war of aggression. Because of these reasons Article XIII incorporates the provision in Article 33 of the Geneva General Act, which reads: "The parties undertake to abstain "from all measures likely to react prejudicially upon the execution "of the judicial or arbitral decision or upon the arrangements proposed "by the Conciliation Commission and, in general, to abstain from "any sort of action whatsoever which may aggravate or extend the "dispute." Or, in short, not to take an attitude which may impair the settlement to be suggested by the Commission, and not to carry out actions which may aggravate or extend the dispute.

#### ARTICLE XIV

No further explanations are required by this article. Each Party to the dispute bears its own expenses and contributes a moiety of the general expenses of the Commission. No costs can be decreed because the procedure of conciliation is not judicial in character.

#### ARTICLE XV

Everything pertaining to the exchange of ratifications and instruments of accession shall be entrusted to the Argentine Foreign Office, as the Chancellery which has initiated this Anti-War Treaty.

#### ARTICLE XVI

This Treaty aims at a wide application, universal if possible. Therefore it incorporates the clause for unrestricted accession open to any state wishing to adopt it.

#### ARTICLE XVII

The Treaty is concluded for an indefinite period; but it may be denounced at any time by means of one year's previous notice.

It is therefore evident:

1.—That this Anti-War Treaty aims to direct the union of the nations of the Americas in their lofty pacifist aspiration, following the route marked by the success of their common views as stated in the agreement of August 3, 1932, in order to consolidate peace in the Continent; concentrating their action around the initiative taken by the nations of the southernmost section of America in their joint declaration of August 6, 1932, in the bringing together with them of the nations forming the Committee of Neutrals now



sitting in Washington, and in the joint action of the nineteen nations which reached the unanimous agreement to establish the foregoing doctrine without delay.

2.—That this Anti-War Treaty in no way repeals the clauses or provisions of preexisting treaties or pacts, American or European, which bind the contracting Parties; but, to the contrary, is intended to add a new instrument for peace, compatible with all the others, and destined to strengthen the effectiveness of their application.

3.—That in this connection it takes into consideration the Kellogg-Briand Pact, and aims at strengthening it through the introduction of improvements in the form, required by the reservations affixed by some of the signatories, and tries to bring it into harmony with the covenants of Locarno and of the League of Nations.

4.—That it also endeavors to strengthen it (the Kellogg-Briand Pact) with sanctions of which it is now devoid, and to broaden the bases of moral power and public opinion upon which it rests, with others of a political, juridical, or economic order, plus the solidary and joint action of a common neutrality, although excluding any diplomatic or armed intervention.

5.—That in order to make the purpose of maintaining peace and of submission to the international standards which furnish its inspiration more effective, it supplements the aforesaid Pact (Kellogg-Briand) with a system of conciliation adapted to all the other treaties in existence, and which is not incompatible with any of the clauses contained in the latter.

6.—That it incorporates the principle which bars force from the field of territorial disputes between states, as an expression of what is the practice among the nations of America, which have generally settled through pacific means their boundary questions, and that it sets forth doctrines which contemplate the possibility of settling, by those means, all conflicts which may arise. It aims, consequently, at contributing by its possible development to a universal undertaking.

7.—That the clauses concerning the part assigned to the Supreme Courts of Justice in the countries where the constitutional system of the United States has been adopted, represent in the form in which they are here submitted an evidently convenient innovation. In such cases as they may not be in harmony with the institutional system of some States, use may be made of the power of formulating a reservation and the same may be done in regard to any other clause of the Treaty which may not harmonize with their views, the rest of the Treaty to be left standing without loss of effectiveness and applicability.

[Signed]

CARLOS SAAVEDRA LAMAS.

### III

## THE BRAZILIAN REPLY

(Translation)

MINISTRY OF FOREIGN RELATIONS,  
*Rio de Janeiro, December 20, 1932.*

NP/53/910/.(42).(41)

Mr. AMBASSADOR:

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt in due course of the confidential note No. 48 of last August 30th and the memorandum of the same date addressed to me by Your Excellency, in which, complying with the duty entrusted to your Embassy by the Minister of Foreign Relations of the Argentine Republic, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, you were good enough to lay before this Ministry a draft for a South American anti-war treaty of non-aggression and conciliation formulated by the Government of your country with the purpose of proposing it to the countries which, in view of the Chaco dispute, had signed the accord of August 6th at Buenos Aires, among which nations Brazil is proud to be found.

2. Your Excellency explains in the note referred to that the principal object of the draft treaty is to give permanent shape and organic form to the unity of purpose which was translated into that noble act of American solidarity which, you add, inspired in lofty purposes of peace, has again brought into prominence the bonds that have now for more than a century united your country and mine.

3. In the same document Your Excellency also states that the draft is an expression of the continuity of an uninterrupted current of historical attachment and ties of propinquity which is certain to grow stronger in the future, for it has an abundant source in our unfailing international harmony which will carry our two nations onward to develop their magnificent possibilities of progress, increasing their common stock of riches and their commercial intercourse.

4. In the traditional policy of Brazil, by virtue of which all boundary questions not settled by direct negotiation have been submitted to arbitral decision, the Argentine Government, your note adds, sees an exemplary attitude worthy of a place in international law; you refer also to the clauses of the Federal Constitution which have guided our foreign policy in the direction of peace; and Your Excellency informs me that your Government took into consideration these characteristics, in its opinion very exceptional, in preferring Brazil for the honor of proposing to her the draft pact.

5. Your Excellency also informs me that the Argentine Government considers the cooperation of Brazil essential to the presentation of the draft treaty to the other countries, believing that coordinated action will accentuate the significance and importance of the pact, which is destined to promote the pacific interpenetration of our two nations—and this is a necessary condition of their development along the parallel lines determined for them by their geographical position and the rich diversity of their zones of production.

6. Your Excellency further explains that, the better to make its action concord with that of Brazil in elaborating the plan that has been submitted to the consideration of this Ministry through your Embassy, the Argentine Government took into careful consideration the classic Brazilian concepts in the matter, and some of the provisions of the draft were deliberately inspired in the thought of certain statesmen of ours, such as Ruy Barbosa, in whose memory some of the stipulations of the draft treaty are included.

7. Your Excellency adds in the note to which I refer that the Government of your country drafted the treaty in such form that its provisions should not alter, derogate, or in any way interfere with the application to American or world relations of any other previous convention or treaty inspired in the same lofty purposes that it envisages, but, on the contrary, should strengthen them, amplifying or perfecting them for the achievement of their ends of peace.

8. The Brazilian Government has carefully read the contents of the above-mentioned note, the draft treaty and the excellent Statement of Reasons that was appended thereto, as well as the memorandum already referred to, and begs to communicate to Your Excellency through me, with the request that you be so good as to inform your Government, that it is deeply sensible of the courtesy of the proposal, and especially of the terms in which the Argentine Foreign Office has formulated it, which are highly honorable to Brazil.

9. Such a signal honor is but another proof of the proverbial generosity of the Argentine Republic, to be added to the many other unequivocal examples which my country gratefully remembers.

10. Faithful to her invariable policy of peace, expressed in her laws and put into practice whenever opportunity has offered throughout her history, Brazil will feel great honor and satisfaction in signing the treaty proposed by the Argentine Government.

11. With this instrument of peace the Argentine Republic gives important evidence before America and the World of her sound pacifist idealism, thereby making another valuable contribution to international law which so many outstanding Argentine scholars and statesmen have already enriched with the liberalism of their sage doctrines and their noble ideas and opinions, thanks to which that

great nation has won a place of marked prestige in this branch of juridical science and in the concert of nations.

12. Recognizing the excellence of the Argentine doctrines in international law, Brazil not infrequently has followed them in her foreign relations and, to refer only to the subject that is engaging our attention, I will remind Your Excellency that in several of her arbitration treaties my country has been inspired by the formula known in the Law of Nations as the *Argentine formula*, after which the Brazilian-Argentine treaty of general arbitration signed in this city on September 7, 1905, was patterned.

13. So was the Convention of Arbitration with Denmark of November 27, 1911; the Convention of General Arbitration with Italy of September 22, 1911; and the Treaty with Switzerland for the juridical solution of controversies, of June 23, 1924;—all of which exclude from international jurisdiction questions that affect the constitutional provisions of any of the Parties.

14. Following the same formula, the Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts between the American States, the so-called *Gondra Treaty*, which I had the honor of signing in the name of my country during the Fifth International Conference of American States at Santiago on May 3, 1923, was first ratified by Brazil, which carried her confidence in this multilateral act to the point of interesting herself in getting other Governments that had signed it to confirm it as soon as possible.

15. Ruy Barbosa, whose voice carried great authority, speaking for Brazil at the Second Peace Conference at The Hague, defended the principles which serve as the basis for this formula.

16. Although departing from the Argentine model, the Convention of General Arbitration that we signed with Uruguay on December 27, 1916, and the Convention of General Arbitration that we signed with Peru on July 11, 1917, are true to the same motives that inspired it, and following closely the concepts of that great Brazilian, provide that all questions which arise between the Parties whatever their nature and causes, which have not been settled by diplomatic means, shall be submitted to arbitration, excepting only those questions which come within the competence of domestic tribunals, where there has been no denial of justice.

17. Eminent internationalists of ours also have preferred the Argentine formula in treating of arbitration; Epitacio Pessoa, in his notable "Draft Code of Public International Law" presented in 1910, and Clovis Bevilacqua, in his highly regarded work "Public International Law", which appeared in 1910-1911, showed themselves partial to this Argentine concept.



18. This uniformity of views, which we have so often seen on the part of our two countries on different occasions, was solemnly demonstrated at the First International Conference of American States which assembled at Washington in 1889, when the delegates of Brazil, Salvador de Mendonça and Amaral Valente, and those of Argentina, Sáenz Peña and Manuel Quintana, together prepared draft treaties condemning wars of conquest and providing for obligatory arbitration which, after slight alterations, received the approval of that great continental assembly, though never achieving the necessary ratification.

19. Now when the Argentine Republic is proposing an anti-war treaty to the other nations, it is pleasant to recall that the first of the draft treaties presented to that Conference by the delegates of our two countries in the most complete harmony of views and there approved, declared conquest eliminated from American public law during the life of the treaty of arbitration, denied to the victor at arms any right whatever over conquered territory, and, holding null cessions of territory made under the threat of war or under the pressure of armed force, granted to the despoiled nation recourse to arbitration, rejection of which would be considered null and void.

20. The importance of these draft treaties in the relations between the nations of the Continent is evident from the message in which on September 3, 1890, Benjamin Harrison, the President of the United States of America, submitted to the Senate and the House of Representatives the two treaties approved by the Conference, wherein he declared that "the ratification of the treaties contemplated by the reports will constitute one of the happiest and most hopeful incidents in the history of the Western Hemisphere."

21. In drafting these two important treaties with the Argentine Delegation, the Delegation of Brazil at the Washington Conference proceeded in accordance with the liberal spirit of the instructions received by telegraph from the Provisional Government of 1889, to the effect that *the widest possible application* should be given to the principle of arbitration.

22. The pact proposed by the Argentine Government will furnish a new and happy opportunity to demonstrate the same harmony of views that existed between the American nations at the time of the preparation of the treaties of 1890 and on so many other occasions.

23. Before the liberal principles embodied in these treaties were inscribed in our political Constitution of February 24, 1891, they had already been graven on the conscience of the nation, such was the sincerity and constancy with which the Imperial Government had practised them.

24. The Republic gave them the widest application. Guided by them in our foreign policy, we have settled all our international controversies by pacific means, either by direct accord or by arbitral or judicial means.

25. Many times in the course of her relations with other nations Brazil has proclaimed the liberal principles by which she is guided, through treaties she has signed or by declarations made by her delegates at political conferences in which she has taken part.

26. At the Second Hague Peace Conference in 1907, the Chairman of her Delegation, Ruy Barbosa, defended the principle of the equality of sovereign States, and he made the vote of Brazil in favor of the creation of the Court of Arbitration conditional on the acceptance of this principle.

27. In the great capital of the Argentine Republic, Brazil concluded with Your Excellency's Government and that of Chile the Treaty of May 25, 1915, known as the ABC Treaty, which was never ratified, the purpose of which was to create a permanent commission to which would be submitted for examination all questions which were the subject of reservations in the treaties of arbitration in force between the contracting Parties and in respect of which the Parties had not reached an agreement by other pacific means. By the terms of this treaty questions which could not be formulated juridically could be brought before the commission and even questions which affected constitutional provisions, these questions constituting the reservations in the treaties of arbitration in force between the three contracting Parties.

28. On the occasion of the Fifth International Conference of American States which met at Santiago in 1923, at which Brazil signed the above-mentioned *Gondra Treaty* with the other nations of America, excepting three that unfortunately did not attend that gathering, I had the honor of outlining our policy in relation to the grave problems debated by that great continental congress in the Declaration of Principles which I presented in the name of my country on April 21, 1923.

29. From this declaration of principles, whose accuracy and faithfulness have not been impaired by the passage of almost ten years, I shall quote the following passages:

"To live at peace with all the nations of the world is the supreme aim of the United States of Brazil.

"When the Federal Constitution invested the National Congress with exclusive competence to authorize the Government to declare war, from the outset it restricted that authority to cases where there was no recourse to arbitration or where such recourse had failed (Article 34, No. 11).

“The United States of Brazil shall never engage in wars of conquest, either directly or indirectly, by itself or in alliance with another nation”; such is the exact wording of Article 88 of our Constitution.

“During a century of independent existence Brazil has always practised peace, and if she has deviated from this policy four times, she was in each case guided by high and noble purposes which did not belie, but rather confirmed, her constant aspiration.

“Opening her vast territory to all men, whatever their countries of origin, giving them equality with our nationals in the enjoyment of all civil rights, Brazil even submits herself freely to the jurisdiction of her federal courts or judges for the decision of all disputes brought by aliens, based either on contracts with the Government of the Union or on conventions or treaties of the Union with other nations, and also subjects to the decision of the same judges or courts all cases between foreign States and Brazilian citizens.

“With these provisions of Article 60, sections *e* and *f*, of the Federal Constitution, Brazil has achieved one of the most advanced positions in the progressive submission of the highest sovereignties to the definite and practical dominion of organized justice.

. . . . .

“The idealism of the Brazilian nation, her traditions and the spirit of her Constitution and of all her laws, the orientation of her foreign policy, all demonstrate that Brazil is a lover of peace, not merely revering it or feeling for it a platonic love, but following peace as a constant practice in her relations with other nations.”

30. When the Protocol of Geneva was being discussed at the Fifth Assembly of the League of Nations, a new opportunity was offered to Brazil to demonstrate her purpose to maintain peaceful relations with all other nations. In the memorable plenary session of the Assembly of the Nations on September 6, 1924, I had the great honor of expressing this purpose of my country.

31. Thereafter Brazil associated herself with the resolutions of the Sixth International Conference of American States which met at Havana in 1928, one of which reaffirmed the principle condemning wars of aggression which were there declared unlawful as constituting international crimes against the human race, and the other adopted the principle of obligatory arbitration for all the nations of America for the solution of controversies of a juridical character which might arise between them.

32. Expressing itself on the Briand-Kellogg Pact, the Brazilian Foreign office again demonstrated the invariable course of our foreign policy.

33. In 1929 at the Conference of Conciliation and Arbitration which met at Washington, Brazil signed the General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation, the General Treaty of Inter-American Arbitration, and the Protocol of Progressive Arbitration. These agreements she signed without any reservations.

34. At the recent World Disarmament Conference, which met this year at Geneva, Brazil once more stated her policy in seeking the supreme objective of peace.

35. Thus Your Excellency may see that even had we not the most weighty reasons for accepting the proposed Pact, reasons which result from the strong ties that bind us to Argentina and to the other nations of the Continent, we should nevertheless find in our international acts and deeds, summarized in this note, sufficient reasons for doing so.

36. Please believe, Mr. Ambassador, that it will be for Brazil a very happy occasion in her political history when she signs a treaty with the Argentine Republic which gives solemn and significant sanction to the true purposes of peace which animate Brazilians and Argentinians in their relations with one another and which will later merit the adherence of the other nations.

37. The signing of the treaty personally by the Chief Executives of the two countries will lend it a significance almost without precedent in the history of treaties.

38. Brazil accepts the treaty as formulated by the Argentine Foreign Office, but desiring that its application be the widest possible as regards persons as well as matters, asks leave to make certain comments in this respect.

39. The words *South American* in the title of the pact seem to restrict its applicability in space although in the text it is declared open to universal adherence. It might be better to omit this part of the title in order to leave it perfectly clear that the treaty is not confined to the limits of the southern half of the continent but that the adherence of all the States of the world is desired.

40. The Brazilian Government would not like to see the treaty have a more limited field of application by reason of the reservations granted the Parties under it than the General Inter-American Convention of Conciliation signed on January 5, 1929, by all the American nations, excepting the Argentine Republic, which unfortunately did not attend the Washington Conference which prepared it.

41. Of the twenty States that signed the Convention, in the text of which there is no limitation whatever, only one nation signed it with a reservation, excluding from its application questions arising from situations or facts previous to its signing.



42. With the reservations omitted from its text, both the one relative to questions which international law leaves to the exclusive competence of each State and the one that refers to constitutional provisions of the nations in controversy, the treaty would better realize one of its aims as set forth in the note to which I have the honor to reply and in the Statement of Reasons whereby the Argentine Foreign Office justifies it, and thus greater force would be given to the convention which has already been ratified by eleven signatory States.

43. Nevertheless, in one form or another, Brazil will have great honor and satisfaction in signing the pact as proposed, and I am certain that this will constitute a great and solemn reaffirmation of the noble aims of peace and the spirit of solidarity of the nations which sign it or adhere to it.

I take this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the protestations of my highest consideration.

(Signed)

A. de MELLO FRANCO.

To His Excellency,

Dr. ANTONIO MORA y ARAUJO,

*Ambassador of Argentina.*



Inquiries concerning travel in Latin America will be gladly answered by the Foreign Trade Adviser of the Pan American Union.

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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



THE OMBU

MAY

1933

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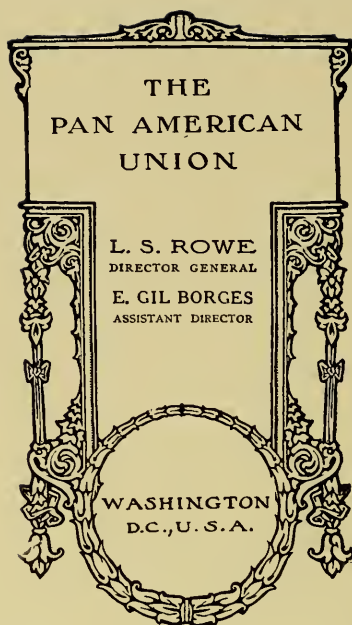
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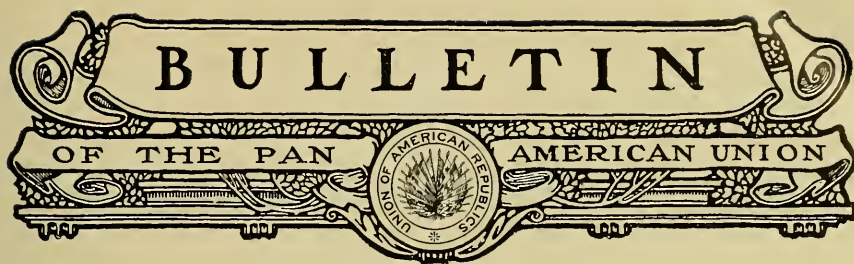
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Photograph by Harris & Ewing.

HIS EXCELLENCY DR. FERNANDO GONZÁLEZ ROA.  
AMBASSADOR EXTRAORDINARY AND PLENIPOTENTIARY OF MEXICO  
IN THE UNITED STATES



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No. 5

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## FERNANDO GONZÁLEZ ROA, AMBASSADOR OF MEXICO IN THE UNITED STATES

THE recent appointment of Dr. Fernando González Roa, a distinguished jurist, as ambassador of Mexico in the United States, comes as a tribute to his ability and efficient service to his country in many other capacities both at home and abroad.

On presenting his letter of credence to the President on February 21, 1933, Dr. González Roa felicitously said:

It is a source of especial satisfaction for me to begin my labors at a time when the bonds of friendship happily existing between the two nations have reached such a degree of cordiality that it would be hard to improve them, inasmuch as, being based on mutual respect, the intelligent understanding of problems, and devotion to justice, they constitute a firm and lasting achievement. I have the honor to state, Mr. President, that it is the intention of the Mexican Government to maintain them and, if it be possible, still further to strengthen them.

In his cordial response the President said:

The expression of Your Excellency's desire to maintain and strengthen the good relations which, by reason of community of interests and propinquity of territory, are a matter of such vital concern to our two countries, is greatly appreciated, and I assure you that the most constant and cordial cooperation on the part of the members of this Government will be extended in facilitating the work of your important mission.

A partial list of the positions which Dr. González Roa has held affords some idea of his varied interests and of the confidence reposed in him by his Government:

Undersecretary of the Department of the Interior; member of the Special Mexican-American Claims Commission; member of the Mexican-French Claims Commission; member of the Board of Directors of the National Railways of Mexico; general attorney for the National Railways of Mexico; delegate to the meeting of the Commission of

Jurists, Rio de Janeiro, 1927; member of the National Tariff Commission; delegate to the Sixth International Conference of American States, Habana, 1928; member of the Commission of Inquiry and Conciliation, Bolivia-Paraguay, Washington, 1929; legal adviser to several Departments of the Mexican Government and to private corporations; president of the Board of Directors of the Bank of Mexico; delegate to the League of Nations; member of the National Banking Commission; commissioner to treat on matters pending with the United States; member of The Hague Permanent Court for International Arbitration; fifth member of the Commission of Conciliation between the United States and Hungary; professor in the National School of Jurisprudence (National University of Mexico); professor in the Free School of Law of Mexico; director of the School of Commerce of Mexico; member of the Inter-American High Commission; and president of the Honorary Board of the Mexican Bar Association.



# ELIOT O'HARA'S WATER COLORS OF SOUTH AMERICA

By LEILA MECHLIN

*Art Critic, "Washington Star"; Secretary, American Federation of Arts*

WHEN the season was changing in Washington, D.C., from winter to spring, the trees putting out fresh foliage, the cherry blossoms in bud, the new administration, headed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt, making history with amazing rapidity, an event of note and significance was an exhibition of water colors of South America held in the Corcoran Gallery of Art, a building especially dedicated to the art of America. These were the work of a Washington painter, Eliot O'Hara, and represented the fruit of a trip to South America of about 4 months' duration, from which the painter had but lately returned.

There were 55 paintings in all, representing in groups of from 7 to 12 respectively no fewer than 5 countries—Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Bolivia, Peru—and the Straits of Magellan, which are of course Chilean but a place apart. When Mr. O'Hara started out in October he had no intention of visiting the Straits, but arriving at Puerto Montt as a steamer of the Menéndez Behety Line was about to sail, he decided instantly upon the 16-day trip, and found it extraordinarily beautiful. And also, he says, "everyone en route was endlessly helpful and courteous."

This was Mr. O'Hara's first visit to South America, and it was undertaken with the purpose of painting typical South American scenes. It was a journey of discovery and adventure and as such eminently successful. Not only did Mr. O'Hara paint the 55 water colors which constituted the exhibition in the Corcoran Gallery of Art but many more, not all equally important perhaps—some mere sketches in pencil and in color—but of such character that they will supply him with invaluable data for future use. And with these paintings and drawings he brought back to the United States a store of delightful memories of things seen, of unforgettable beauty, of many kindnesses from strangers, and of civilizations, ancient and modern, that called forth admiration and respect.

Mr. O'Hara started his journey under the best of auspices after consultation with the Pan American Union and the embassies and legations of the several South American countries that he proposed to visit. The out-bound sea trip was on steamers of the Munson Line; the in-bound trip on a steamer of the Grace Line, both lines



affording him every courtesy. Briefly, his journey took him first to Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina, and then over the Andes by way of the five lakes to Puerto Montt and, after the Straits interlude, up the coast to Bolivia and Peru. Each country he found to possess unique characteristics, but all were alike in the generous hospitality extended.

The pictures that Mr. O'Hara brought back with him are colorful and clever, but that which makes them of real importance is the fact that they register his emotional impressions of these, to him, completely new scenes. They are for the most part landscapes. In the



RIO DE JANEIRO FROM  
NICTHEROY, BRAZIL.

In this water color Mr. O'Hara pictures his impression of the beautiful bay of Rio de Janeiro seen through the palms just after sunset.

Courtesy of Eliot O'Hara

beautiful setting of Rio de Janeiro he found much of interest. With great delight he painted the *Sugar Loaf*, which stands as gaunt sentinel to the magnificent harbor. He also painted *Rio from Nictheroy* as seen through a group of royal palms. This painting, in compliment to the artist and South America, was purchased from the exhibition in the Corcoran Gallery by Mrs. Roosevelt and will hang in the White House. Also in the Brazilian group were paintings of Bahia and Santos, the former a very early settlement, antedating Jamestown, Va., by more than half a century, the latter the greatest of coffee

ports. After a brief stay in Buenos Aires, Mr. O'Hara went inland and painted lakes, mountains, and trees. Undoubtedly one of the finest works in his exhibition was *Río Frías in the Andes*—height appearing above height, partly cloud-veiled—while in the foreground in mirrorlike placidity is seen a glacial stream flowing through tree-dotted meadows. Another Argentine subject of great beauty was *On Lake Nahuel Huapi*. Two giant white-trunked trees are seen on the shore of an emerald lake, measuring their height against a mountain

RÍO FRÍAS IN THE ARGENTINE ANDES.

The mist settling on the mountains gives an almost Japanese effect to this water color.



Courtesy of Eliot O'Hara

range snowcapped along the sky line. Mr. O'Hara has made a special study of tree formations, and his *Ghost Trees at Correntoso* gave evidence of his knowledge of tree anatomy, as well as his sense of the dramatic in nature. The red city of Antofagasta made an interesting color note in this exhibition and his *Huascos* (cowboys) near *Ensenada* introduced a bit of human interest.

The Straits of Magellan group comprised mostly pictures of mountains—stern—in some instances forbidding but inspiring—great



Courtesy of Eliot O'Hara

## NATALES.

Across the bay of Última Esperanza (Last Hope) from the sheep country are some of the most dramatic mountains in the Straits of Magellan.

works of nature. In speaking of this part of South America, Mr. O'Hara pays high tribute to the sterling worth of the sheep herders who make it their home. A very different picture, or series of pictures, Mr. O'Hara gives us of Tierra del Fuego from that of earlier travelers. According to Mr. O'Hara travel in South America is an adventure, but in beauty rather than in danger and hazard.

From Chile Mr. O'Hara went to Bolivia, which of all the countries visited he found most colorful and individual, owing in part to the still prevalent wearing of native costumes. In each city in which Mr. O'Hara stayed he visited the art museum and found much to interest and to admire. In Bolivia the art museum is given over exclusively at present to historical exhibits, the works of art of the ancient people who inhabited this country. But here he made contacts with a number of artists of exceptional ability—a painter who had been trained in the school of fine arts at Yale University and a deaf and dumb Indian sculptor whose genius recalls that of Mestrovich and Bourdelle. Here a little exhibition of Mr. O'Hara's paintings was held and one painting given as a nucleus for a modern collection. In his Bolivia group are two or three portrait studies—*Indian Girl*, *Bolivian Indian*, *A Descendant of the Incas*—strongly delineated. Here also are several architectural themes—*A Colonial House* of 1775 with interesting court; a nocturne, *The Southern Cross*, the façade of





Courtesy of Eliot O'Hara

#### ANTOFAGASTA.

This Chilean city lies between the bright crimson Atacama desert and the Pacific.

a stucco house of Spanish type of architecture, bathed in pale moonlight, the stars, forming a cross, glowing in the gray-blue sky. *Morning Shopping* is a lively, colorful street scene, as is also *The Sunday Market*.

Finally we come to Peru. In this group was a picture of *The Oldest Church in Arequipa*, *Conquistador's Palace*, and a glimpse of the artist's own hotel room. Here were more red roofs—but now of *Arco Santa Clara, Cuzco*—a most interesting and engaging study of *Eucalyptus Trees*—and a wonderful interpretation of the hills covered with volcanic ash at Mollendo. What variety and what charm! A new world opened to other artists and travelers of North America.

Mr. O'Hara is one of the leading water colorists of our northern continent of America, known and acclaimed for his painting, his teaching and his writings. A book on water-color painting whimsically called *Making Watercolor Behave*, of which he is the author, has sold in an edition of 2,500 and is being reprinted at this time. He contributes to all of the leading annual exhibitions of water colors in New York, Philadelphia, and elsewhere, holds one-man shows, and in summer conducts a large outdoor school of water-color painting in Maine near Kennebunkport. But Mr. O'Hara has been painting for only about 6 years. Until then he ran a factory in Waltham, Mass.,



and lived the usual life of an enterprising, successful business man. A friend who was a teacher of drawing induced him to take up sketching as a pastime and then he experimented with color. Almost directly he knew that he must paint rather than manufacture. With a wife and children to support, he courageously burned his bridges and changed his career. He has never repented it. Five years ago he was the recipient of a Guggenheim fellowship which enabled him to travel and paint for several months in Russia. His recent trip to South



A COLONIAL HOUSE, LA PAZ, BOLIVIA.

This patio in La Paz is only one of many entrancing glimpses of this beautiful city.

Courtesy of Eliot O'Hara

America was an adventure of the same sort but personally planned. His energy is tireless and his enthusiasm contagious.

The majority of the water colors painted by Mr. O'Hara in South America are on white paper, 15 by 21 inches in dimension, and are in transparent color, broadly applied. So swift and sure is Mr. O'Hara's stroke that it seems almost unbelievable, but coupled with simplicity, its very directness gives an impression of ease. His work is never labored.

But what a gigantic achievement—a group of 55 paintings such as these done in new places within so limited a time! To achieve such

results the painter's eyes must be accommodated to new sights and the artist's temperament adjusted to his surroundings. He must be able promptly to throw off the sensation of strangeness and to accommodate himself to his environment before he can be free to select and to compose. Of course no painter who works as does Mr. O'Hara with such breadth and freedom is restrained by facts. It is his impressions and emotions that he registers. Possibly this fact accounts for the appeal which his paintings make—an appeal transcending charm of color and subjective interest. Despite the fact that Mr. O'Hara was a successful business man and is an excellent traveler, he is first and always a sensitive and zealous painter.



Courtesy of Eliot O'Hara

#### ARCO SANTA CLARA, CUZCO.

More than any other Peruvian city, Cuzco carries one back to colonial times.

# GOLD FROM NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA

By PERCY E. BARBOUR, B.S., C.E.

*Consulting Mining Engineer*

WORLD gold production in 1932 reached the astonishing peak of probably more than 24,000,000 ounces. It is yet too early to secure accurate final figures. One American authority estimates the total as "upward of 23,900,000 ounces", while the most authoritative English source places it at 24,697,000 ounces. The importance of this production lies not alone in its size, but in the fact that it was achieved 17 years after world authorities had decided that world gold production had started on an inevitable and permanent decline.

In 1915 the world production of gold, as given by the United States Mint, reached 22,737,520 ounces. From this all-time peak, the production decreased to 15,451,945 ounces in 1922. During this period the declining output caused widespread concern and it was feared in many quarters that future production would prove inadequate for the world's increasing business needs. Whether one shared this concern or not, everyone is gratified that the gold production has been increasing since 1922; that the 1932 figures indicate the greatest annual production in history and that, moreover, indications are that it will be exceeded in 1933.

This new all-time peak has been achieved not by the discovery of a single new producing district of importance but by increases from almost every hitherto known productive source. The cause of this large production comprises several important factors, but by far the most important is the fact that it has become more profitable to mine gold, because, after all, the strongest motivating force in gold production is profit, the margin between the cost of production and its selling price.

Because of world economic depression and the great decline in commodity prices, the cost of mining has decreased. Not only are costs reduced and profits increased for continuous producers but the decreased costs make it possible to mine ore of a grade not previously profitable. This is one of the factors which has drawn into individual operation placers and other deposits previously idle. Such work has not merely been a boon to many thousands of unemployed but has also added no mean amount to the total production.

In all the gold-mining countries unemployment has sent literally thousands of people prospecting and placering on various scales from individual operations to undertakings of some pretension.

In British Columbia the number of free miners' certificates issued indicates that some 7,000 men formerly unemployed have participated in the search for gold. These operations, together with those of experienced prospectors, have extended exploration far beyond the ranges heretofore covered and promise increased production for the future.

In California whole families have taken to the hills in this search for gold. Some of course meet with failure and disappointment; others make a living; and some few make strikes which for them end the depression. In Colorado the Engineers Society has sponsored grubstaking the jobless miners to help them in their quest. Colorado is preeminently the home of the grubstake—that is, the furnishing of funds to provide food and sustenance to the miner during the unproductive period of his search.

In Montana the School of Mines is conducting free classes to train people to use the gold pan and the rocker to help them increase their chances of a successful hunt for the precious metal. In Alaska also there has been a "depression gold rush," and despite the sparse population and great mining difficulties the increased production in 1932 is expected to be raised by another 25 percent of the total in 1933. The United States Bureau of Mines has been flooded with inquiries about gold prospects and placering. It is estimated that 50,000 to 75,000 unemployed in the United States have been engaged in this treasure hunt, and when the winter season has passed this number will probably be considerably augmented.

There are said to be 40,000 formerly unemployed now engaged in small scale or individual placer operations in Chile. This movement has been fostered by the Government, which expects by the further use of this incentive to solve its problem of the care of the unemployed and to be able to discontinue other unemployment relief after the middle of the current year. Gold mining operations in Chile on a large scale have heretofore been generally unprofitable, largely because of the high cost of labor as well as supplies. Both have been scaled down by the depression, and it is not too much to expect that the future of Chile as a gold producer will be vastly affected by current conditions, which may have lasting effect, particularly if important new discoveries are made.

Thus the depression has added a new and unique chapter to the spectacular history of gold mining, which goes back to the very discovery of the New World. The story of the gold acquired by the *conquistadores* from the Incas of Peru and from the natives of Panama, Central America, and Mexico is one of the most fascinating tales of history, blackened although it is by tragic injustice and cruelty. It is probably well that we cannot know the exact amounts of gold poured into the coffers of the Old World by these newly discovered



lands. If these amounts were greater than our expectations, our cupidity and envy would be aroused, and if below, the glamour of our fascinating histories would be dulled. An exact knowledge of this gold production would have some statistical value, perhaps, but the romance of the story as it is, is probably worth more than the statistics. We know that this gold made Spain the greatest empire of the world at that time and that it perhaps saved a decadent Europe from further and perhaps darker "Dark Ages."

The gold rush of '49 to California is still a matter of romance but, even though it occurred a long time ago, yet it took place within an era of Government records and we know quite accurately what year to year produced. Since then we have had the Comstock, Grass Valley, Cripple Creek, and minor Colorado camps, Alaska, Goldfield, Porcupine, Kirkland Lake, Rouyn, and others, each with glamour and romance, tragic drama, comedy and economics, but in every case with a diminishing of the romantic and an increase of the economic significance, until now a gold discovery of importance means a mad rush of avid seekers of sudden wealth, quickly overwhelmed with law, order, technical, economic and statistical experts, local and foreign exchange questions and all the other prosaic concomitants of too much civilization. Gold mining is now just a matter of ounces of production and dollars of profit.

The accompanying Chart No. 1, drawn on ratio-scale paper, from which rates of increase in percentages can easily be read, shows some very interesting facts. The great increase in world production beginning about 1890 was due to the discovery, almost coincidentally, of the extensive gold deposits of the Transvaal and the cyanide process of gold extraction, which made possible not only the profitable treatment of those South African ores but also that of many gold deposits in the rest of the world, particularly North America, theretofore too low grade or too refractory to be treated by the then common methods. In the early nineties also North America was thrilled by the discovery of several very rich and very productive new gold camps. The United States ultimately surrendered its premier position as a producer to the Transvaal, but rising production made the North American output conform closely to world production, as shown by the chart. The United States has now been exceeded by Canada, which has achieved second place as a world producer. Its phenomenal rise is shown in Chart No. 2. At one time it had the world's second largest gold producing mine, the largest then being in the Transvaal. Canada's expansion has not yet reached its zenith, and given economic conditions favorable to gold mining, it can confidently be expected that Canada for some years will continue to increase its output.

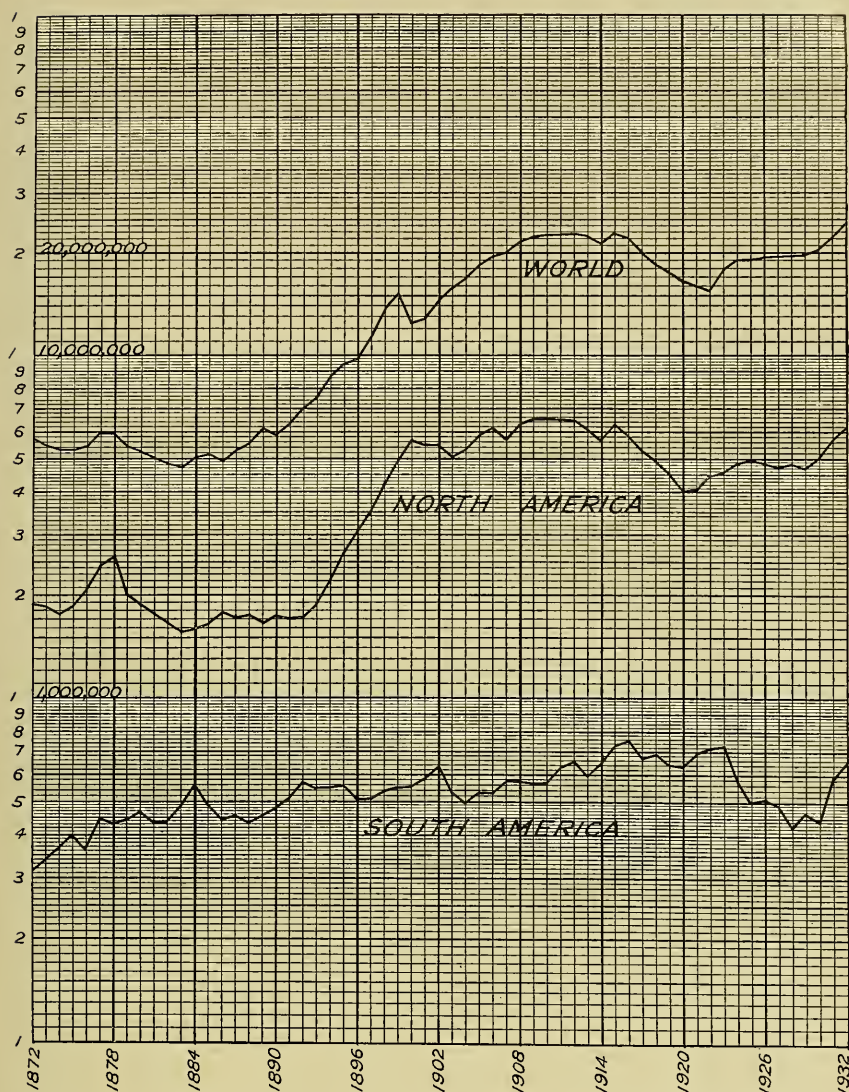


CHART No. 1.—GOLD PRODUCTION OF THE WORLD AND THE AMERICAS, 1872-1932.

(Quantities are given in fine ounces.)

Referring again to Chart No. 1, it will be seen that South America did not increase its gold production with the advent of cyanidation but has maintained a more or less steady but slowly increasing production up to the war and the post war inflation periods, which curtailed gold production all over the world. The production in South America is now rising at a more rapid rate than in either North America or the world as a whole.



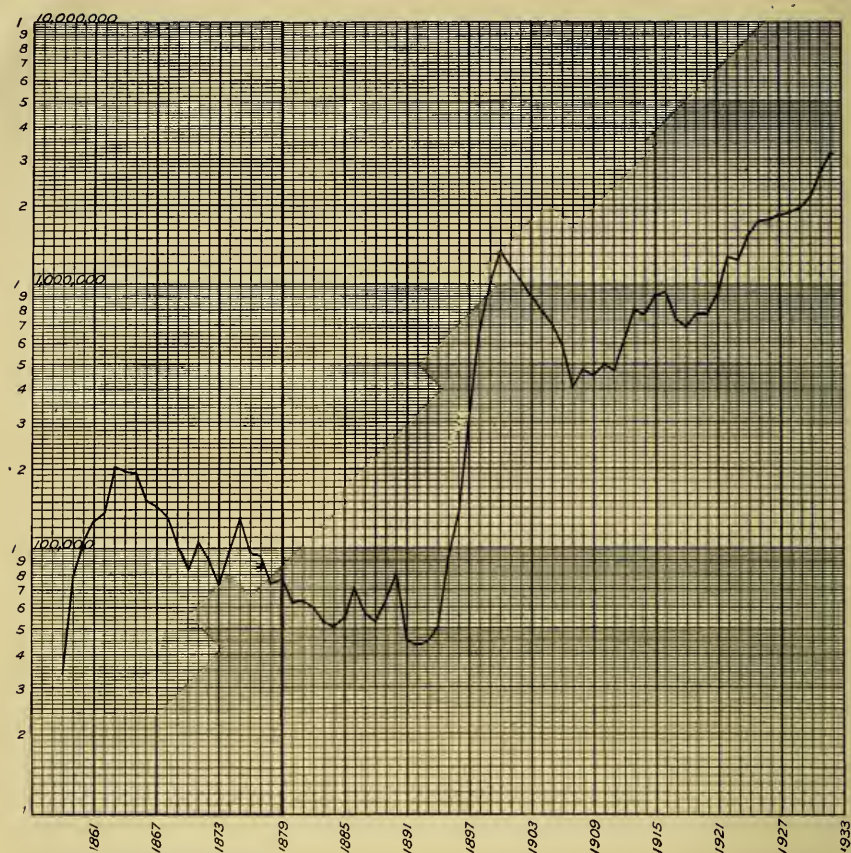


CHART No. 2.—ANNUAL GOLD PRODUCTION OF CANADA, 1859-1932.

(Quantities are given in fine ounces.)

Mexico and Central America have been producing gold since before the Spanish conquest. Mexico became a very important producer at the beginning of the present century. The growth of mining throughout the State and the general geological knowledge acquired does not leave hope for the same rate of expansion as in South America. However, political upheavals had probably more direct adverse effect on gold production than in most Latin American countries and Mexico should exceed any previous record of production.

Central America, Panama, and the West Indies also have been gold producers since before the discovery of the New World by Columbus, but their tropical climates have prevented the hunt for gold with the same aggressiveness that the northern countries have seen, and the jungle vegetation adds an almost insuperable difficulty to prospecting.

Argentina, Uruguay, and Dutch Guiana have never been important producers of gold. French and British Guiana have been consider-

able producers, reaching their peaks around the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth centuries. The production, mostly from alluvial gold, has since declined and at present is unimportant. However, the Guianas have suffered more than usual from managerial difficulties not necessarily innate to the mining industry, and while the most available deposits have been worked, it is still possible that the Guianas may exceed their previous productions.

Gold was discovered in Brazil in the latter part of the seventeenth century, and during the eighteenth century this country was by far the world's largest producer. During the nineteenth century this production declined greatly, but an increase has been registered in the present century. While it has not equaled the early records, yet Brazil is an important producer with a good outlook.

The history of gold production in Chile, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela begins with the conquest by the Spaniards and was part of the El Dorado legend to which literature owes so much. All of these countries have great possibilities, and while they present formidable prospecting and mining difficulties, nevertheless the present economic factors favorable to gold mining, together with the recent adaptation of cyanidation and flotation processes, open new vistas to these countries in the production of the world's most sought after metal.

The modern development of South American gold mining has been backward, which is in marked contrast to its romantic history of early richness and production. It is quite possible, however, that the present world economic depression may be the augur of a new day for this South American industry. Mining costs have been lowered all over the world and high cost, rather than a lack of ore deposits, has been one of the main factors in retarding South American gold production. The extremely rugged character of the Andes has been a tremendous element not only in these high costs but also in the matter of prospecting; another very important factor has been the difficulty of securing investing capital.

There are certain obvious difficulties that will be continuing in a more or less permanent degree, such as nationalities and nationalism, distances, and social and political conditions, but one very great handicap in the past can be overcome—that is the psychology of the owner. This psychological factor is not only South American; it is typical of any owner of a gold prospect or even of an operative gold mine. There is a universal tendency on the part of the vendors to overvalue a gold property in its initial stages. This is perhaps naturally instinctive, but it is based on a misconception of the value of gold to the producer. When gold reaches the marts of the world, whether in industrial or monetary uses, an ounce of gold is an ounce of gold and no one cares what it cost to produce it. But to the miner who is



operating the property the cost of producing an ounce of gold is the major controlling factor, because the selling price is fixed; if his costs are not well below the selling price, then his operation will not be profitable, and as soon as his profits stop the end of the mining operation is soon in sight. It is generally quite useless to try to show the vendor why he should be satisfied with a lower price for his property. It is his property; if he considers it worth so much to himself, that is his prerogative, and if he fails to find a buyer, that is his own disappointment. However, if one tries to show him why it is not a good investment from the standpoint of capital, and an alternative but lower offer is made, he is likely to feel that an effort is being made to trade him down. Then he becomes suspicious of the weight of the argument used and will look elsewhere for a buyer on his original terms, generally to be disappointed again and finally to develop an unfortunate opinion of mine capitalists. Yet there is plenty of money avid for gold mining investment. It is amazing how many gold mining propositions are brought to New York for financing, which from a mining standpoint have much attractiveness, but fail sometimes to get even a little attention because they are improperly or poorly presented with insufficient engineering data or extravagant estimates unsupported by any engineering data; or with price and terms fixed by rule of thumb or the wish of the vendor which does not give the investor even "a run for his money."

In mining engineering there are three accepted classifications of ore: positive, probable, and possible. Positive ore is ore that is blocked out on at least three sides; probable ore is ore blocked out on at least one side; and possible ore is the ore which may be estimated to extend beyond any present workings and may be large or small in amount, depending upon geological conditions. Assuming that a mine has sufficient profitable ore and geological possibilities to run into a considerable tonnage, the accepted method of soundly arriving at the worth of the mine is briefly as follows:

Multiplying the tonnage by the net profit per ton gives the net value of the ore in the mine. From this must be deducted the cost of the further development to the productive stage, together with the cost of the equipment required, a mill, surface developments, etc. This gives the net value of the property, but over a term of years, not as of today. Assume that for the mill capacity contemplated there is sufficient ore to run the mill for 10 years. Then dividing the net value by 10 gives the amount available for an annual dividend throughout the life of the mine. Recourse is then had to present worth investment tables, where for any given rate of return required on invested capital, a present worth factor is obtained for the number of years the dividend is payable, in this assumed case 10 years. This factor when multiplied into the annual dividend

will give the present worth of the mine; that is, a sum or price which will return to the investor his original investment at the end of 10 years, together with a return of the determined rate of interest on this capital during and throughout these 10 years. It will thus be seen that after all the talk of the lure of gold—and individually this lure is undoubtedly very great—when it comes to interesting capital in a mining venture on a considerable scale, is just cold financial computation based on a fixed return on capital.

Generally the price element is the controlling factor. Here is a recent example. A property had a history of production and development and had sufficient ore blocked out from which a net profit of \$300,000 could be expected. The price of the property was \$150,000. Those figures would seem to indicate, and undoubtedly they did to the vendors, that one could readily double his money. As a matter of fact it represents a loss to the buyer. The property will require a large mill and, being located in an arid country, water will have to be piped and pumped a considerable distance. The cost of equipping the property will be at least \$150,000. Therefore it would require the total net value in sight to pay the original cost of the property and the equipment. The vendors would have their \$150,000; the buyer would own a piece of property and some equipment which he had worked several years to make pay for itself, but there would be no ore in sight; and all he has for his trouble and his pains is the return of his capital without interest and the privilege of spending more time and money in the hope of finding a profitable ore body. Obviously such a proposition could hardly be called attractive to capital. Yet it could be made into a fairly attractive proposition, fair and profitable to both sides, if the vendors could rightly evaluate what they have to offer.

Recently an American spent a considerable amount of effort, time, and money securing a gold mining concession from one of the South American countries, which he brought to New York with great hopes and expectations. His engineering data were convincing. Although the mining difficulties were great, the extent of the placer and the richness of the ground indicated a very profitable operation notwithstanding the fact that a very large investment would be required. His negotiations resulted in disappointment because of the time limit set in the concession. Only a large company could handle the operation. If one could have been found, and undoubtedly there could have been, there was not sufficient time allowable for the company to send its engineers to the mine for examination and verification of the data submitted and for preparation for the undertaking if they had wanted to proceed.

South American governments might find it greatly to their advantage if they would establish a mining bureau to assist their nationals to put in proper shape for presentation to capital the many attractive mining properties awaiting development within their borders. It is not beyond the bounds of reason to anticipate a very great development in South American gold mining and gold production. It has not yet lived up to its modern opportunity, not so much through fault as through a combination of natural circumstances that now bid fair to be less formidable than ever before.

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## GOLD OF THE INDIES, FANCIED AND REAL

By ADAM CARTER

*Pan American Union Staff*

THE *auri sacri fames*—the accursed thirst for gold—played a star rôle in planting the white man's civilization in the New World. "We suffer," Cortés told Moctezuma's emissary, "from a disease of the heart for which gold is the specific cure." "Ours be his gold, his pleasures!" exclaimed the soldiers of Belalcázar when setting forth in quest of El Dorado, the fabled Gilded King. "Why don't you stay at home and till your own lands?" queried some of the Indians first met by Pizarro, while unknowingly answering this question with the gold ornaments displayed on their persons.

European ideas on gold were entirely different from those of the native Americans, none of whom gave this metal wide use as a medium of exchange. True, they treasured it; brought it to their kings as tribute; used it to decorate their temples and palaces; wrought it into beautiful jewels, many of which went with their fathers to the grave. But it remained for the newcomers to show them how deeply the stuff could get into the souls of men.

An ancient historian tells us that the subjects of the Incas looked for gold, silver, and precious stones *only in their spare time*. It was the Europeans who went in search of El Dorado, and suffered so greatly in these expeditions that another historian was led to wonder if they would have taken as much trouble to get into Paradise.

Prior to the discovery of Mexico, the amount of gold found in the New World had been comparatively small. Outside of the ornaments presented by the Indians to the conquerors and those the latter acquired through barter or by force, the only source of the metal was a few mines in Hispaniola (the island now divided into Haiti and the Dominican Republic), Cuba, and elsewhere, which were profitable only on account of the insignificant cost of labor.



In February of 1517 a Spanish *hidalgo* by the name of Hernández de Córdoba set sail from Santiago in Cuba with three vessels and 110 men. After 21 days at sea, during which heavy gales were encountered, he found himself before a strange and unknown coast. The Indians came out to meet the ships, in canoes equipped with oars and sails, and very cordially invited the newcomers to visit their city. The invitation was accepted, and in due course of time the Spaniards fell into an ambush and got back to their ships only through their superior military prowess. The place where Hernández de Córdoba made this first landing was Cape Catoche, in Northern Yucatan. He continued



GILDING AN INDIAN CHIEF.

Legends have referred to priests and noblemen who were anointed with balsam over which powdered gold was blown through a hollow reed. It was the search for such a Gilded King, "El Dorado", that led many of the *conquistadores* to explore the northern portion of South America.

to explore the coast, and went ashore in Campeche, where he was received peacefully, but he saw all around him so many warlike preparations that he hastened back to his fleet. Another landing was made at Champotón, to refill the water casks, and while engaged in this operation the Spaniards were surrounded by Indian warriors. When, next day, they finally broke through with many efforts, an eyewitness tells us that "it was a sight to see how the Indians ran after us, howling outrageously, throwing arrows that whistled in the air, and harassing us with their lances. . . . It was only with the aid of God that we saved our lives and reached our ships." In this encounter



the Spaniards' loss in dead, captured, and wounded amounted to 84 men. Every soldier, with one single exception, had been wounded at least three or four times. The commander had 12 wounds. Preparations for a return to the home port were begun at once, and soon the adventurers forsook those evil waters, bestowing on them the name "Bay of the Bad Fight." Ten days after landing in Cuba Hernández de Córdoba died from his wounds.

The experiences of this first expedition showed clearly that the inhabitants of the newly discovered lands were entirely different from the easily subdued natives of the Antilles, but the tales the explorers



MANOA OR EL DORADO.

Raleigh reported the imaginary Manoa, or El Dorado, as an imperial city which exceeded in greatness, richness, and location all other cities of the world. The print shows the portage of boats and gold from the Essekebe (Essequibo) River to Lake Parime or Parimá.

told of the magnificent temples and palaces they had seen, and especially of the amount of gold brought back by them, led Velásquez, Governor of Cuba, to organize a second venture, to be commanded by his nephew, Juan de Grijalva.

The new expedition left Cuba in May of 1518, touched the places discovered by Hernández de Córdoba, and explored the Gulf Coast as far as the Pánuco River. In what is now the State of Tabasco the Spaniards entered a large river, to which they gave the name Grijalva, in honor of their commander. Here a friendly interview was held with the Indians, and a certain amount of gold objects obtained in

exchange for glass beads. Besides, the newcomers were told that in a country situated farther to the west they would find the yellow metal in great quantities. Proceeding along the coast, Grijalva entered the territory of the Aztecs, and at one place was met by the Indian governor of the region, who had instructions from his emperor, Moctezuma, to learn all he could about the strength and intentions of the newcomers. Presents were exchanged—worthless trinkets for jewels and gold ornaments and vessels of the finest workmanship—barter was carried on for several days, and then Grijalva sent one of his ships back to Cuba, laden with the treasures he had gathered, which exceeded his greatest expectations. Afterwards, he touched at San Juan de Ulúa and Sacrificios, two islands at the entrance of what is now Veracruz harbor. Upon his return to Cuba, after an absence of nearly six months, Grijalva received, not the warm welcome he had expected, but merely the criticism of Velásquez for not having shown sufficient initiative to establish a colony in the new-found lands.

Velásquez certainly could not have complained about a lack of initiative on the part of Hernán Cortés, the man to whom he gave the command of the third expedition into Mexico, which left Cuba in February of 1519 and was made up of 660 Spaniards and 200 Indians, with 16 horses. These animals, foreign to the New World, were then very rare and therefore highly prized.

Cortés skirted the Mexican Gulf Coast and after making several landings reached San Juan de Ulúa, where he received, shortly afterwards, a visit from Teuhtlile, the Aztec Governor. Rich presents were made to Cortés at this first interview, and it was then that he mentioned the “disease of the heart” afflicting the Spaniards, for which gold was the specific cure.

It was not long before Cortés, after some adroit political maneuvering, founded the Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz *in the name of the Spanish sovereigns*, ceasing to be directly responsible to Velásquez. Soon afterwards, he gave another proof of his “initiative” in the destruction of the fleet. This measure was taken to restore confidence in the wavering hearts of his followers by depriving them of a means of retreat.

The history of the conquest of Mexico abounds in deeds that show how much self-reliance and resourcefulness Cortés possessed. In Cholula, on the way to Tenochtitlán (the Aztec capital, whose site Mexico City now occupies) he turned the tables on the Indians, who were planning to exterminate the Spaniards, by leading them into a trap in which several thousand were slaughtered. When he learned that the Governor of Cuba had sent Narváez, with a well-equipped force, to fight and subdue him, he turned back, gave Narváez battle, defeated him and induced the newly arrived men to fight under his

banners. After arriving in Mexico City, when his position became too dangerous he saved himself by a bold stroke—the imprisonment of the Emperor Moctezuma. And, of course, the proof *par excellence* of his marvelous leadership lies in the Conquest itself: in the subjugation of a mighty empire by a mere handful of men.

It was indeed a rich sovereign whom the Spaniards captured. When they first saw him, he was in the midst of a glittering retinue, in a palanquin blazing with burnished gold and shaded by a canopy

THE TREE OF THE SAD  
NIGHT, MEXICO.

History relates that under this tree, Cortés wept as a result of the losses inflicted upon his followers in their attempted evacuation of Tenochtitlán with their burdens of golden treasure.



of featherwork powdered with jewels and fringed with silver. The person of the Emperor was adorned with gold and jewels, and the soles of his sandals were of gold. The cortège was preceded by three officers of state bearing golden wands, and when Moctezuma alighted the ground was covered with tapestry that his feet might not touch the base earth.

The amount of gold taken from Moctezuma has been estimated as close to \$7,000,000. A tidy sum for those days; so tidy, in fact, that few European monarchs, we are told, could then boast of having as



much treasure in their coffers. However, a large part of this gold was destined not to remain in the hands of the Spaniards. Even the imprisonment of the Aztec Emperor proved to be insufficient to insure permanently their safety in Tenochtitlán, and when he died, from a wound inflicted by his own embattled subjects, the Spaniards decided to evacuate the city, and to do this at night, when their movements were less likely to be detected by the enemy. Some of the treasure had to be abandoned, for lack of means of transportation. Many of the soldiers, tempted by the heaps of shining metal, overburdened themselves with it, in spite of their commander's advice that "he travels safest in the dark night who travels lightest." Their cupidity proved to be their doom in the carnage that ensued when the Aztecs detected the attempt to escape.

The Spaniards lost practically all of the treasure; all their artillery, ammunitions and baggage; and more than half of their men and their horses.

This was the famous "Sad Night", in which the stout heart of Cortés was overcome by his emotions and he wept bitterly as he reviewed, from his seat under a majestic *ahuehuete* tree, the remnants of his once proud army.

But the great leader's hour of grief was short. He soon reorganized his forces, renewed the struggle, and after many epic fights, in some of which the odds were so overwhelmingly against the Spaniards that they fought "with their souls in their teeth", he laid a firm foundation for what was to become Spain's most important colony in the New World.

The discovery and conquest of Peru, performed under the leadership of Francisco Pizarro in the early part of the sixteenth century, fully matched, and may even have surpassed, the sheer lunacy of the conquest of Mexico by Cortés. "The odds", an author tells us, "were too great to be combated by sober reason. They were only to be met triumphantly in the spirit of the knight errant."

Vasco Núñez de Balboa, who discovered the Pacific in 1513, had obtained what he considered reliable accounts of a great kingdom that flourished in the south. However, no previous expeditions (except one organized by Andagoya, which soon returned, sadly depleted by the ravages of fever) had been led to this alluring land when the enterprise was undertaken by two men of arms, Pizarro and Almagro, and a priest, Hernando de Luque. "Luque o loco", some of his contemporaries called him for furnishing the money spent in these ventures.

On November 14, 1524, Pizarro left Panama in one of two ships used in the first expedition. When the first landing was made, after 70 days at sea, 34 of the 112 men aboard had already died from fever. Hunger, and strife with the Indians, further thinned the Spaniards'



ranks. In an encounter, Pizarro received seven wounds, any one of which might easily have proved mortal. Finally, he returned to Panama, with only 60 men—and some gold. In the meantime, Almagro had sailed in the other vessel. Reaching the mainland and not finding Pizarro, he explored the coast and then returned to Panama with a sizable amount of treasure.

The second expedition was begun in the spring of 1526. The gold ornaments worn by the Indians whom the adventurers met in various places clearly showed the latter that the country was rich, but the warlike nature and the numbers of the aborigines showed with equal



SMELTING AND CASTING GOLD.

The process of fashioning gold objects as performed by the Indians of the Guiana region was thus pictured in De Bry's *Collectiones Perigrinationum*.

clarity that it was dangerous. Almagro made two trips in quest of provisions and reinforcements, leaving Pizarro and his men, during the second one, on a desert island, ill supplied with means of sustenance but believed safer than the mainland. On this voyage, Almagro unknowingly conveyed a letter secretly sent to the Governor of Panama, in which the soldiers told of their sufferings. Several months later, two ships arrived at the island. When it was learned that they were commanded by an officer of the Governor, who had instructions to rescue those who desired to return, almost all of Pizarro's men were overjoyed. Their commander called them together, and with his sword drew a line on the sand, from east to west.

Then he told them: "To the south, lies Peru and its treasures. To the north, Panama and poverty. Make your choice. I am going south!" Only 16 men joined him.

The ships sailed, leaving the adventurers a scant supply of food. After spending seven months on an adjacent and more fertile island, to which they traveled on a raft, Pizarro and his followers were joined by one of the ships sent to Panama for provisions, whose return had been delayed by the Governor. In this ship, Pizarro renewed his explorations; acquired a considerable amount of gold through barter and from some Indian graves found in an island; and saw more of the coveted metal in the brilliant city of Tumbes, which the Spaniards visited but dared not attack. One of the men who went ashore described a temple he had seen as being literally tapestried with plates of gold and silver. He added that some adjacent gardens, destined to the Inca's brides, glowed with imitations of fruits and vegetables, all in pure gold. When his companions heard these accounts, they were nearly mad with joy.

Returning to Panama, and finding the authorities there unfriendly to the furtherance of his plans, Pizarro went to Spain, taking with him, as presents for Emperor Charles V, a part of the treasures he had gathered. He was well received at court, and in due course of time a contract was drawn up whereby Pizarro received all the powers of a viceroy, including a guard of honor; Almagro was made commander of the fortress of Tumbes, and Father Luque, bishop of that city. The way was clear now. All that remained to be done was to go and conquer Peru!

On January 19, 1530, Pizarro sailed from Spain with 3 ships, 180 foot soldiers, and 37 cavalymen.

What happened afterwards is so well known that it need not be repeated here. However, one cannot help marveling at the magnitude and constancy of Pizarro's lucky star. How different his fate if the Inca's confidence in his own strength and his curiosity to see the Spaniards had not led him to allow them to cross the Andes without being intercepted at the various fortified mountain passes; or if the government of Peru had not been so absolute a monarchy that the seizure of the King threw the whole empire into confusion; or if Atahualpa's struggle with his brother Huáscar had not made him abandon his capital and travel to Cajamarca, where his capture was more easily accomplished. But all those things did happen, and Peru was conquered. The amount of gold given the Spaniards by Atahualpa as part of his ransom is said to have exceeded \$15,000,000. And that was only the beginning of the plunder of a country whose temples and palaces were veritable mines of gold.

The Temple of the Sun at Cuzco had become so enriched under the munificence of successive sovereigns that it was given the name "Cori-

cancha"—the Place of Gold. In the figurative language of the people, gold was "the tears wept by the sun," and the whole interior of the temple glowed with burnished plates of the precious metal. All the ornaments, utensils, and plate used in the temple were of gold or silver. Even the water pipes and the agricultural implements used in the gardens were of these rich materials. The gardens were filled with golden reproductions of fruits, flowers and animals, the llama, with its golden fleece, being most notable among the latter.

Perhaps the most romantic side of the search for the yellow metal in the New World was that which bore no golden fruit at all: the quest of El Dorado.



Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History

#### GOLD OBJECTS FROM PERU.

The collection of the American Museum of Natural History in New York includes numerous specimens from countries of Central and South America. This pitcher, plate, and hammered goblet from Peru may be similar to gold articles in the treasure given Pizarro as ransom for the Inca chief, Atahualpa.

The stories told the Europeans by the natives concerning this marvelously rich personage were tinged with the varied hues of Indian imagination and differed as to details and even more widely as to location. But the substance of all reports was similar: The King was every day anointed with a certain oil and then covered, from head to foot, with powdered gold. Hence the name El Dorado, which was at first applied only to the monarch and afterward extended to include everything in his domains.

In search of this golden myth the Europeans went: Spaniards, Germans, and Englishmen. While so doing, their explorations of the northern part of South America were more thorough, it has been





Courtesy of the University Museum, Philadelphia.

A GOLD BREASTPLATE FROM ECUADOR.

This plate, measuring 14 inches in width, has as its central decoration a humanlike head which stands out in bold relief against a background of double-headed alligators.

said, than any conducted ever since. Some of the regions they traversed are at the present time considered impassable.

The sufferings endured by some of these adventurers were so appalling that credence can be placed in them only with the support of historical proof. In February of 1541 Gonzalo Pizarro, a half brother of the Conqueror of Peru, left Quito in command of 500 Spaniards and 4,000 Indians, headed for the Kingdom of El Dorado, which was believed to exist in the "Land of Cinnamon." A few miles from Quito, the ascent of the Andes was begun. A terrible earthquake and a drenching rain that went on for weeks and weeks were some of the first obstacles encountered. A way had to be hewn through thick forests, and the men constantly were near swollen streams and dangerous morasses. Their food was spoiled by the ceaseless rain and soon they found themselves eating their livestock, including horses and dogs, and later on subsisting on whatever fruits and herbs they chanced to find. Still, they went on. The "Land of Cinnamon"



was finally located, but as no El Dorado existed there, they proceeded with the quest. In order to avail themselves of the inland waters of the region, they decided to construct a ship. "For iron", we are told, "they used the shoes of their dead horses, and in lieu of pitch they availed themselves of a gum which was distilled by the trees there, and for oakum they made use of the old garments of the Indians or the shirts of the Spaniards." In this vessel, christened the "San Pedro", Francisco Orellana, Pizarro's lieutenant, was sent with some of the men in search of provisions. He discovered and explored the Amazon, but failed to come back, and left Pizarro facing the alternative of starving or returning to Quito. The homeward journey was begun and completed after untold hardships. The remnants of the proud force that had left the city 16 months previously now entered it almost entirely naked, covered with a few rags and the skins of beasts, with their arms and legs torn and scratched, and so ravaged by hunger that their friends were hardly able to recognize them. Of the 4,000 Indians, not a single one remained.

At least a dozen finely and expensively equipped expeditions went in search of El Dorado. To one of them the Spanish Crown is said to have contributed 70,000 ducats more than it spent for the discovery of America.

The inclination to laugh at the credulity of those who staked life and fortune in these ventures is most natural and easily understood. But let it be remarked that in this enlightened twentieth century efforts have been made to recover the treasures of El Dorado. The *auri sacri fames* bids fair to remain with humanity for a long, long time to come.



# SUMMER STUDY IN SPANISH AMERICA

By HELOISE BRAINERD

*Chief of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union*

WHY not combine study and travel this summer? You have always felt the lure of the Spanish Main and promised yourself a trip to some of the countries whose romantic past has stirred your imagination. And as you have read recent history thoughtfully, you have realized that right and harmonious relationships between nations, as between individuals, depend on the willingness to understand one another's situation and point of view. This means that, as far as the Western Hemisphere is concerned, just as many of us as possible must visit and become really acquainted with our neighbors instead of always running off to Europe. The best means of doing this in a short time is the summer session in a Spanish-American university or the conducted study tour.

So if you are a student or a teacher of the Spanish language seeking the indispensable experience of life in a Spanish-speaking country, if you are an observer of international affairs who wants to know why other peoples act as they do, if you are interested in social movements and are eager to see how they work in other countries, or if you are just a plain traveler of the kind that likes to see more than the outside of the places he visits, then you are offered delightful opportunities in Spanish America this summer.

Mexico is a neighbor who offers us great charm and variety—scenery ranging from the Tropics to snow-crowned peaks, impressive and beautiful works of man from prehistoric and colonial times, an intensely interesting variety of races and cultures. You may become acquainted with Mexico either through the summer school of the university or through the seminar conducted by the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America.<sup>1</sup>

From July 28 to August 19, 1933, the National University of Mexico will hold the thirteenth annual session of its summer school for foreign students. If you are primarily a student of Spanish, this is the place to go. Distinguished members of the university faculty

<sup>1</sup> Word has just been received that there will be an opportunity for Americans to attend the summer session of the University of Guadalajara, Mexico, June 29–August 31. This will not be a special session for foreigners, as last year, but the courses, planned for Mexican students and taught by the regular faculty of the University, can be taken with great profit by advanced American students of Spanish. The nearness of Guadalajara to the American border and the low cost of the session, the charm of Guadalajara as a historic and unspoiled center of Mexican culture, its delightful summer climate and interesting environs, make it especially attractive. Further details may be had by addressing “El Secretario, Universidad de Guadalajara”, Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico.

teach courses in the language, history, art, and social conditions of Mexico, and the opportunity is offered to live in direct daily contact with Spanish-speaking people. Even the beginner in Spanish finds elementary courses suited to his needs, while the advanced student may take up phonetics, philology, and the literature of Spain and Spanish America. Fascinating courses in Mexican history, archeology, government, economic and social problems, literature, education, art, music, and folklore give a background for appreciation and understanding of Mexico's contribution to the world's culture. Other courses take up relations between Mexico and the United States,



THE PLAZA IN CUERNAVACA, MEXICO.

The delightful city of Cuernavaca will be the scene of sessions of the annual Seminar in Mexico for a 10-day period. Since the days of Cortés, who built a palace there which is now the seat of the State government, Cuernavaca has been a retreat for persons intimately connected with the history of Mexico.

Hispanic-American history and civilization, and the French and Portuguese languages. Full credit for these courses is given by most universities in the United States, and it is possible to obtain a master's degree in modern languages in four sessions.

It is scarcely necessary to call attention to the prestige of the University of Mexico, whose antecedents date back to 1551, the unrivaled archeological and colonial remains of Mexico, the extent and breadth of her culture in literary and artistic fields, her unique natural beauties, and her delightful summer climate. Full opportunity is offered to become acquainted with all these features through well-

planned excursions. Complete information concerning the summer session may be obtained from the Director de la Escuela de Verano, Universidad Nacional de México, Ribera de San Cosme, 71, Mexico, D. F. The total expense is estimated at \$300 for persons in our Southern States and from \$350 to \$400 for those in the more distant States.

Another excellent opportunity, especially for those who do not speak Spanish but desire to gain an understanding of Mexican life and culture, is provided by the seminar in Mexico conducted by the Committee on Cultural Relations with Mexico. Now in its ninth year, the seminar offers a comprehensive three weeks' program, July 8-28, comprising lectures, round tables under the leadership of distinguished Americans and Mexicans, and trips which take in the principal places of interest within a radius of 100 miles from Mexico City. The first 10 days of the session are spent in the delightful old city of Cuernavaca, where a study is made of the fundamental aspects of Mexican history, culture, and social and economic problems, and the remaining 10 days in Mexico City. The program offers distinct advantages to those interested in the fields of economics, international relations, the arts, education and archeology. Besides the field trips included in the seminar, members are given the opportunity during August to make other excursions under expert leadership to places of great interest, such as the archeologically renowned region of Oaxaca. Full details regarding the seminar may be had by addressing Dr. Hubert C. Herring, director, 112 East Nineteenth Street, New York City. The expense is estimated at from \$300 to \$425.

Does Puerto Rico attract you? Why not spend a few weeks in becoming acquainted with this lovely tropical isle under the American flag—an island whose charm proves irresistible to all visitors—and at the same time attend the University of Puerto Rico, taking the courses in Spanish planned for beginners or the more advanced teachers' courses in language and literature? The latter give you the chance to rub elbows with a fine group of Spanish-speaking teachers. The 1933 session will be held between July 3 and August 17. The low expense, estimated at from \$250 to \$300 with New York as a starting point, makes it possible to add trips to other Caribbean points: the Dominican Republic and Haiti, the Virgin Islands, Venezuela, and even Colombia and Panama. For particulars as to the summer session, address the Director of the Summer School, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R.

At the time this goes to press the Guatemalan papers mention plans under way for organizing a summer course for foreign students at Antigua, the picturesque former capital of Guatemala. In previous



years the university at Guatemala City has held summer sessions, but this year it is proposed to utilize the buildings of the ancient but now defunct University of San Carlos at Antigua. This city, abandoned as the capital of the country after the great earthquake of 1773, is of very great historic interest and has a most delightful climate. Within view are the twin volcanoes Agua and Fuego. Beautiful Lakes Amatitlán and Atitlán and the famous Maya ruins of Quiriguá are among the chief sights of the country. Those interested may apply for information to the various Guatemalan consulates (New York, San Francisco, New Orleans, etc.).



Photograph by Thomas F. Lee.

#### CHURCH OF LAS MERCEDES, ANTIGUA.

A visitor to Antigua will find much of interest and beauty in the ancient capital of Guatemala and its environs.

Perhaps some lover of things Spanish who finds the trips already described beyond the reach of his pocketbook in this year of lean purses, may be interested to know that Spanish America is coming to the United States in the person of Gabriela Mistral. This Chilean poet, beloved throughout the Spanish-speaking countries, will again be visiting professor of Spanish-American literature at Middlebury College, Vt.; \$225 covers the charge for the 7-week session, June 30 to August 18.

Among the countries of Spanish America represented in this year's summer sessions, there is sufficient variety to provide a delightful and profitable experience for those who are interested in our southern neighbors from any point of view.

## “HEIGH-HO, COME TO THE FAIR”

By ELIZABETH LINEBACK LEDIG

TO Zanzibar for mystery and spices, to Cairo for amber, to the quaint shops of Naples for turquoises and old silver! The forest bazars of Africa, the streets of Pekin, the French quarter of New Orleans—all the world's a market place, intriguing, inviting. But when life becomes a bit drab and you've wearied of the things you understand, drift down to Lima, sway through the all-day climb in the maddening, wonderful Ferrocarril Central and give yourself to the beauty, the Spanish-Indian charm of Huancayo.

Calle Real, the main street, is quite wide—a dirt road pounded down by years of use and occasionally helped out by a bit of coarse gravel. But we do boast cut-stone sidewalks, and along them all manner of shops. Above the shop doors are balconies and over them bend dark-eyed señoritas to view the passing world.

And the passing world they view is certainly worth seeing. Theoretically no animals or cars are allowed on the street on Sunday morning, for that is the big market day, or *día de feria*. The cholos, or half-breed Indians, come from miles around to sell their wares or bring their hoarded soles to spend. My special fancy pulls me two ways, to the silver and to the hand-woven goods.

An old native with a withered hand comes from the neighboring town of San Gerónimo de Tunán bringing necklaces and bracelets of tiny silver llamas; an old woman with a weeping baby strapped in a scarf on her back squats by the sidewalk and offers us silver filigree eardrops and lovely spoons, rings, and queer salt dishes supported by tiny llamas. The work is all done with incredibly crude tools in dirty patios with the bulls, pigs, and chickens for onlookers. Most of the silver used is melted down from the ninety percent silver coins, or from old colonial family plate which has unfortunately fallen into the smith's hands. More seldom a native from the interior will come in with a llama-load of silver he has dug from his own small unknown mine. In the silversmith's patio will be a brasier filled with lumps of charcoal from Pariahuanca; from nails on the walls hang molds of tiny llamas, deer, Inca heads, and birds. For the actual work there is a wooden table on which the design is tacked out with slender nails; then the silver thread is drawn firmly around the nails and soldered in place. Where firing is necessary small bits of charcoal are sprinkled into the design to keep delicate threads from melting together.

The majority of the weavers live up the Mantaro River Valley in Hualhuas and other tiny towns given over to their trade. It is surprising to notice how after the four hundred years since the Spanish Conquest the old Inca rule still obtains here in the high Sierra. The various communities continue very much as they were started; some make pottery, some tiles, others work silver or weave. The woven stuffs are of two main classes—suiting and rugs, blankets, etc. The wools are all carded and spun by hand exactly as Penelope spun all those years she was so busy being faithful. The ponchos and larger rugs are made on such looms as those found in the little town of



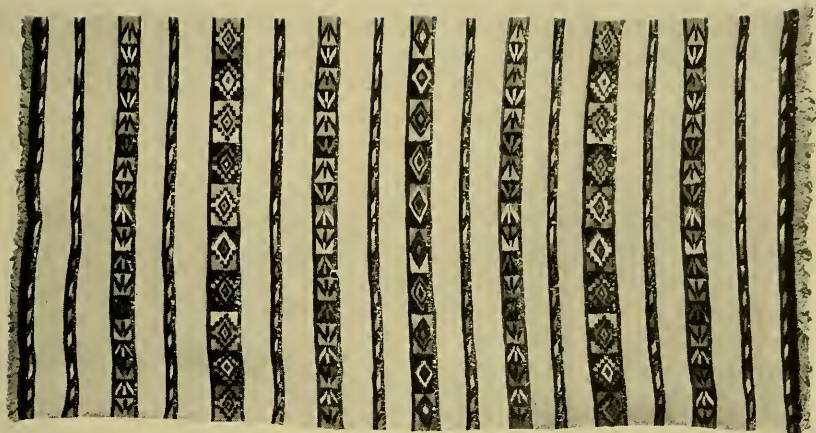
#### NATIVE SILVERWARE

Indian silversmiths in Huan-cayo, San Gerónimo and Ayacucho produced these necklaces of fine filigree, pins, spoons, and tiny bowls supported by figures of llamas.

Courtesy of Elizabeth Lineback Ledig

Hualhuas and are very similar to the rag-rug looms of our Kentucky and West Virginia mountains. Such looms, which are customarily handled by men, were introduced into Peru by the Spaniards. The more common type of loom is that used especially by women. After the wool has been spun into a firm, even thread the colors are sorted and wound into balls. On a roller about 30 inches long are a myriad of little tacks and to these the wool threads are tied; the length of the weaving is approximated and on a similar roller the threads are again tied and cut; the mat is rolled up part way and the first roller fastened to a pole some 2 feet high in the patio. The weaver seats herself on the ground, fastens a belt around her waist, and straps the belt to





# PERUVIAN HAND-WOVEN GOODS.

Upper: This blanket of sheep wool, from the Huaneayo Valley, has adaptiones of Inca designs in brilliant colors. Right: This rug was woven from alpaca wool in natural colors. The face on the rising sun is that of the Inca sun-god, Inti.



Courtesy of Elizabeth Lineback Ledig



the pole that holds the loom, braces her feet against a stone, and is ready to weave. She almost never uses a pattern of any kind, carrying both color and design in her head as she works. A shuttle is entered to keep the wool in order, then the warp is threaded through on a stick, plucked up with a smooth bone, the shuttle pushed up, the thread again plucked, the shuttle reversed and the warp thread returned. The rugs, blankets, and scarfs are of sheep, llama, or alpaca wool, the latter usually being combed until it is as soft as Angora. Here in the street sit the women with piles of rugs before them, the designs ranging from cats and ducks to intricate conventional figures and the round face of the eternally popular sun-god *Inti*.



Courtesy of Elizabeth Lineback Ledig

#### INCA POTTERY.

The jar at the left is from Pampa Paschea and the black vase at the right from near Talara.

Next the rugs are piled bales of coca, the dried leaf from which cocaine is extracted. It is chewed incessantly with a bit of lime to add a pleasant tang. Unfortunately it turns the native's teeth green.

Across from the coca venders are the carved and painted gourds. Very beautiful some of them are, too, with scenes of old battles burnt on them, or deep jungles where monkeys, birds and snakes form the background for a procession of high Sierra llamas. The carving is all done by hand with no picture to guide the thin brown fingers of the artist. The large gourds become money boxes or coca bowls, the very small ones rattles for the wealthier babies, the shallow halved ones dishes. In most cases the entire family serves itself from a large black clay pot which is set on three stones over a fire of oil-yielding eucalyptus leaves and dried cow-dung. A halved gourd, plus a crude wooden spoon, answers all the requirements of etiquette.

Nearly one full block of Calle Real is given over to the pottery market, most of the pots having been brought on burro-back or carried by the women from Mito Alto. The clay used is exclusively local and of a fair quality, but it is so poorly sifted and washed that modern Peruvian ceramics are in no way comparable with the old Inca work. The large jars and pots are made by the men, who also manage all the firing; the women mold small pitchers, bowls, plates and jugs, and are responsible for the remarkably unimaginative painting. The clay is first put into a shallow pit, water is added and the mass is kneaded with the feet until of a workable consistency, when it is covered and left for several days. Only once have I seen a potter's wheel used anywhere in the Sierra. A substitute is made as follows: A plate *A* is placed on a smooth flat stone, then a second quite cupped plate *B* is put on the first. The old potter takes clay and works it to a ball, shifts it to her left hand, with her right fist makes it a cup which she firmly slaps down on plate *B*, which usually has engraved in its center the potter's initials or symbol. Then with her left hand she spins plate *B* on plate *A*, at the same time forming the jar with her right hand. When more clay is needed it is made into a rope and added in that form. After a jar is completed to the shoulder it is set aside for a day to dry in the sun, then more clay ropes are added for shoulder, neck, and handles, after which it is again dried. Rasping is done at first with a piece of broken kerosene can, then with a smooth hard bit of baked ceramic. The surface is finished inside and outside with a wet rag or the hand dipped in water. Pottery in the Huancayo valley is seldom glazed at all but is fairly water-tight.

The rug man pushes his way to us through a crowd of natives, his arms filled with white, gray and brown llama skins. He tries to tempt us with two monkey skins that he claims his brother has just brought up from the jungles near the Pichis trail. While we are squabbling with him over prices (he would be so disappointed if we didn't!) an old woman pulls at our skirts and whispers that she has three real vicuña rugs hidden at her home. So off we go down side streets to a tumble-down adobe building and up a flight of stairs to a dark little room where behind closed shutters we are shown the exquisitely soft, contraband furs. Perhaps some time the ban may be lifted on these lovely things and vicuña fur may take the high place in world consumption it rightfully deserves. As we come back toward town a pretty little widow sells us adorable crocheted dolls dressed exactly like the Sierra women in tight bodice, full brilliant skirt, and shoulder scarf.

It is nearly noon, and the sun directly overhead makes us realize that for all its altitude of 11,000 feet Huancayo is only 12° south of the Equator. So we turn back down the street past piles of rope made of beaten sisal fibers, past piles of bright loose wools, past stalls



## NOVELTIES AT THE FAIR.

Upper: These small figures, from Huancayo, are made of wood and plaster, and dressed in cloth painted with thickened tempera. Right: From the highlands near the La Suintai Glacier came this carved and burnt gourd bowl with native figures and pastimes forming the decorative motifs.



Courtesy of Elizabeth Lineback Ledig

of German dyes, through a group of women who call to us to buy ponchos and scarfs and fantastically woven belts. And through it all go children vending American-made shoestrings and little mirrors, small native boys with trays of sliced pineapple, blind beggars, stray pigs and fighting dogs, soldiers with guns, an occasional visiting American at sight of whom prices rush heavenward. It is never a noisy scene, for the crowd is composed mostly of Indians—a quiet, timid people they are, who often argue among themselves violently but seldom loudly.

A riot of color, from the glorious blue sky gleaming over perpetually snowclad peaks to purple and pink crocheted baby caps and gay green petticoats!

“Then it’s heigh, ho, come to the fair,  
To the fair in the pride o’ the mornin’.”

## A TRANSCONTINENTAL BRIDGE

THE rapid extension of telephone communication between the United States and the countries of Latin America has picked up momentum during the past year. In general, this has also been true of growth of the telephone systems within these countries themselves. Furthermore, 1932 and the closing days of 1931 saw the opening of several new radiotelephone circuits in South America which interlink the major telephone networks of the continents and go far in the direction of giving South America a cohesive telephone network.

Because of the interests in common between the countries of the two great continents of the Americas, it is inevitable that a rapid extension of such an aid to understanding and commercial intercourse as telephone communication should press forward regardless of adverse forces, such as lagging economic conditions. The value of telephone contact in this close Pan American relationship has been cited repeatedly by the State Department of the United States and by the presidents and foreign ministers of the Latin American countries during the conversations inaugurating new circuits. In opening one of the major radiotelephone links with South America former Secretary of State Henry L. Stimson expressed it in this manner: "It impresses me greatly to think of our voices bridging the vast distance. I cannot help but feel that it is symbolic of the close and friendly relations which bind our nations and which, through the privilege of personal contact offered by this new means of communication, will be made even more cordial and mutually beneficial."

Of the 20 Republics of South America, Central America, North America, and the West Indies, 11 have regular commercial telephone service with the telephone networks of the United States and Canada and, for five of them, opening of this service has come within the past 6 months. At the time of writing, service between the rest of North America and two other Republics in Central America is scheduled for opening about May 1.

At the beginning of 1932, there were two radiotelephone circuits in operation between the United States and Latin America: the Buenos Aires-New York circuit, which, of course, had been in operation for several years, and the Rio de Janeiro-New York circuit, which had just been opened for commercial service late in December 1931.

The circuit between New York and Buenos Aires links with those of North America the telephone networks of the southern half of South America, the region south of the United States that has the heaviest telephone development. This group includes the telephone net-



works of Argentina and Uruguay as well as that of Chile, whose system was connected with the countries of the east coast by the cable line constructed across the lofty Andes by associated companies of the International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation in 1928.

Prior to the Rio de Janeiro opening with New York, radiotelephone service had been inaugurated between Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires connecting Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile telephonically with Brazil. At that time, however, the international service in Brazil



LAYING THE TELEPHONE CABLE ACROSS THE BLEAK HEIGHTS OF THE ANDES.

Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation.

had been extended only to the city of Rio de Janeiro. Early in 1932 it was extended to the State of Rio de Janeiro. In November 1932 the telephones of the State of Minas Geraes received world-wide service, and during December the important extension to the State of São Paulo was made. Thus, the greater part of the more industrialized sections of Brazil was made available to North America by telephone during 1932.

The extension of the international radiotelephone service to Peru came in October 1932 and, of course, this was a service inauguration of major importance. A few weeks later service between Peru and

Chile was made available for the first time over the international radio transmitting and receiving stations near Lima and Santiago; this circuit also provides a connection between Peru and the southern network in Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay. Radiotelephone service also has been established connecting the telephones of Brazil and those of Peru.

In all mention of the telephone systems of North America, those of Mexico and Cuba are included. As the various openings to the more southern Latin American countries have taken place, service has been



Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation.

RECEIVING STATION OF THE COMPANHIA RADIO INTERNACIONAL DO BRASIL,  
RIO DE JANEIRO.

This powerful station at the Brazilian end of the New York-Rio de Janeiro circuit brings to Brazil messages from the United States, Cuba, Mexico, and Canada.

made available to Mexico and Cuba simultaneously with the United States and Canada.

The powerful radio stations for international telephone service at Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, Santiago, and Lima, and connecting telephone systems in Argentina, Mexico, Cuba, Chile, Uruguay, and Peru are operated by associated companies of the International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation. The connecting telephone network in Brazil is served by the Brazilian Telephone Co., a subsidiary of the Brazilian Traction, Light & Power Co. The radio stations of the American Telephone & Telegraph Co. at Lawrenceville (transmitting) and Netcong (receiving) in New Jersey operate with the countries mentioned thus far.

Colombia joined the Pan American telephone family in December 1932, although prior to 1932 radiotelephone service had been established between Bogotá and Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay through Santiago. The new radiotelephone plant built by the American Telephone & Telegraph Co. during 1932 near Miami, Fla., constitutes the North American end of the circuit with Colombia.

Early this year, the service was extended to the telephone system of Venezuela through radiotelephone equipment at Maracay, and Venezuela became the third major South American country to be added to the Pan American telephone network since last October.

The aforementioned radiotelephone plant near Miami and stations of the Tropical Radio & Telegraph Co. in Central America have made possible the extension of the international service to Central American countries.

The first radiotelephone communication between the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Cuba, and any of the Central American countries south of Mexico was opened on February 24, 1933, when service was inaugurated with the Panama Telephone Co. in the Republic of Panama and the Canal Zone. This was followed on March 19 by the opening of service with Costa Rica, and circuits to Nicaragua and Guatemala are scheduled at the time of writing to be opened about May 1.<sup>1</sup>

To recapitulate: It is now possible to telephone from the United States to Mexico, Cuba, Costa Rica, Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, Peru, and Chile, and by the time this appears in print it will probably be possible to call Nicaragua and Guatemala as well. At the Panama-Pacific Exposition in 1915 one of the features of the telephone exhibits was an auditorium where, through earphones, the visitor could hear first the waves of the nearby Pacific and then those of the distant Atlantic over the transcontinental telephone system completed not long before. Little did the visitor enthralled by this marvel anticipate that in less than 20 years his voice might span the American continent from north to south as well as from east to west by this bridge which crosses the Equator, joins the Rockies and the Andes, the Great Plains and the Pampas, and brings closer together the republics of the north and south.

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<sup>1</sup> That to Guatemala was, in fact, opened on April 17, 1932.—EDITOR.



# FIRST CONGRESS OF THE PAN AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

THE Pan American Institute of Geography and History was created by resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States, which met at Habana in 1928, to serve as a center of cooperation and coordination in geographical and historical studies between the Republics of the American continent. In accordance with the terms of the resolution the seat of the institute was chosen by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union; Mexico, whose capital was thus designated, provided an attractive and commodious building for the newly organized body.

Delegates from the American Republics met at Mexico City in September 1929, to discuss the statutes for the Institute. At this Preliminary Assembly, as it was called, the Brazilian delegate, Senhor Moreira de Abreu, proposed in the name of his Government that the first congress should be held in Rio de Janeiro. The congress therefore assembled in Rio de Janeiro on December 26, 1932, closing its sessions on January 1, 1933.

The following program had been prepared in advance by the executive committee:

- I. Report of the Director of the Institute on the work accomplished from September 1929 to September 1932.
- II. Necessity of carrying out research in the measurement of gravity throughout the Americas, in view of the relationship established between the negative variations of gravity and seismic and volcanic regions. Publication no. 5 of the Director of the Institute.
- III. Desirability of studying the volcanoes in the Americas in order to elucidate modern theories of isostasy. Publication no. 4 of the Director of the Institute.
- IV. Archeological Studies in the Americas.  
Study of Lic. Alfonso Caso on the work at Monte Albán, Mexico.  
Study of Ing. José Reygadas Vértiz, Chief of the Bureau of Archeology, Department of Public Education of Mexico on Aztec Archeology (Pyramid of Tenayuca).  
Other papers presented by the delegates on American questions of a similar nature.
- V. Historico-Social Studies in the Americas.  
Paper by Lic. Andrés Molina Enríquez, archeologist of the Department of Public Education of Mexico.  
Other papers of a similar nature concerning American countries, presented by the delegates.
- VI. Cartographical Work in the Americas.  
Presentation of the map of the Republic of Honduras.  
Other work of the same nature relative to the Americas.



- VII. Discussion of the resolutions and recommendations passed by the Preliminary Assembly of the Institute held in Mexico City in September 1929, with a view to their execution or amendment.
- VIII. Consideration of the resolution on the Institute passed by the Sixth International Conference of American States in Habana, for the purpose of indicating the mode of complying therewith, especially with the sixth and seventh paragraphs of this resolution, which are of great importance in the organization of the Institute.
- IX. Revision of certain articles of the statutes approved in the Preliminary Assembly held in Mexico City, articles whose terms should be amended in view of the small number of countries which have adhered to the Institute.
- X. Reading and discussion of papers of an historical and geographical character presented by the delegates of the American States. Historico-geographical work of Señor Roberto Andrade, Ecuador.
- XI. Election of the new Executive Committee and discussion of budgets for carrying out the work authorized by the Assembly, with a view to consideration of the funds that will probably be available.

At the preliminary session, held in the hall of the Brazilian Geographical and Historical Institute, under the chairmanship of Doctor Manuel Cicero Peregrino da Silva, chief of the Brazilian delegation, the delegates of the American Governments and scientific societies who composed the membership of the conference voted to divide its work into four sections: (1) Embracing topography, cartography, geodetics, and geomorphology; (2) covering human geography, ethnography, historical, biological, and economic geography; (3) devoted to archeology and American history through the colonial period; and (4) concerning the history of the emancipation and independent life of the American Republics.

The formal opening session took place on December 27 in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Ministers of Foreign Affairs and Public Education welcomed the delegates and stressed the importance of geographical and historical research.

After brief remarks from delegates from each of the American nations, His Excellency Señor Don Alfonso Reyes, Ambassador of Mexico in Brazil and chief of the Mexican delegation, expressed the gratitude of the members of the congress for the cordial welcome accorded them by the Government of Brazil. He closed with the following words: "We sincerely desire the success of our labors, which may well hold an incalculable importance for a more complete understanding of America by America and, indeed, of man by man." The meeting ended with the reading of the report of the work of the Institute for 1929 to 1932, presented by Dr. Pedro C. Sánchez, Director of the Institute.

At subsequent sessions the statutes were amended, a project for the support of the Institute by national quotas was passed, and the financial

statement for 1930 to 1932 and the budget for the next 3 years were approved. The following officers were elected:

*Honorary Presidents.*—Dr. William Bowie, United States, and Dr. Salvador Massip, Cuba.

*Executive Committee.*—Chairman, Dr. Wallace W. Atwood, United States.

*Perpetual Vice President,* Count de Affonso Celso, Brazil.

*Vice presidents.*—Roberto Andrade, Ecuador; Scipión Llona, Peru; and Ricardo Fernández Guardia, Costa Rica.

*Alternates.*—Dr. Ricardo Levene, Argentina; Dr. Víctor Muñoz Reyes, Bolivia; Jorge Matte Gormaz, Chile; Jesús M. Henao, Colombia; Carlos M. Trelles, Cuba; Pedro Salvador Fonseca, El Salvador; Prof. Joaquín Rodas M., Guatemala; Dr. Catts Pressoir, Haiti; Dr. Ricardo Alduvín, Honduras; Dr. Ezequiel A. Chávez, Mexico; Dr. Alfonso Ayón, Nicaragua; Prof. Aristides Royo, Panama; Dr. Cecilio Báez, Paraguay; Dr. Américo Lugo, Dominican Republic; Elzear Giuffra, Uruguay; and Dr. Vicente Dávila, Venezuela.

*Officials of the Institute.*—Director, Dr. Pedro C. Sánchez, Mexico; Assistant Director and Secretary of the Executive Committee, Dr. Octavio Bustamante, Mexico.

The congress received 77 monographs in all, of which 30 were in English, 7 in Spanish, and 40 in Portuguese. These were summarized before the various sections and gave rise to interesting discussion and comment.

It was voted to hold the next congress in the United States in 1935, and Dr. Wallace Atwood was chosen its chairman. Dr. Atwood, the president of Clark University, was a delegate of the United States.

The first congress closed on January 1, 1933, with a most cordial resolution thanking the Brazilian Government and the Brazilian delegation for their hospitality. Votes of thanks were also extended to Mexico for its support of the Institute and to the Pan American Union for assistance in organizing the congress.

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## THE OMBU

IN connection with the woodcut of the ombu by the Uruguayan artist Federico Lanau, reproduced on the cover by courtesy of *Criterio* of Buenos Aires, we quote the following excerpt from W. H. Hudson's *Far Away and Long Ago* concerning this tree, which is a majestic feature of the South American pampas:

The ombu is a very singular tree indeed, and being the only representative of tree vegetation, natural to the soil, on those great level plains, and having also many curious superstitions connected with it, it is a romance in itself. It belongs to the rare *Phytolacca* family, and has an immense girth—40 or 50 feet in some cases.

# RECENT CHANGES IN THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY OF LATIN AMERICA

By JOHN W. FREY, Ph.D

*Petroleum Section, Minerals Division, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce*

LATIN AMERICA'S growing contribution to the world's petroleum supply is made by eight countries, four of which each produced in 1932 one percent or more of the world's total of 1,300,000,000 barrels. Over 15 percent of the world's total, or nearly 200,000,000 barrels, was produced in Latin America last year.

On the whole, from the inception of the industry, petroleum operations and output tended to increase in these countries up to 1929 when their production reached the peak total of 235,424,000 barrels. Mexico has been an exception to the general upward trend in that it reached the peak of production in 1921 with a production of 193,398,000 barrels and has since then had a consistently downward production to 32,805,000 barrels in 1932. Since 1929, largely due to world economic conditions, the production of Colombia, Peru, and Venezuela has been reduced. During the same period Trinidad and Ecuador have made small increases and Argentina has made a considerable increase.

In recent years about two thirds of the petroleum and its products produced in Latin America have entered foreign trade. Of the major producing countries only Argentina does not export. This is significant, as the general reduction in total production appears to be due to legal and trade conditions and not to declines in potential capacity.

Argentina is the only country in Latin America with important commercial production whose consumption exceeds its output. Since the production of Argentina has not kept pace with the demand, for many years it has imported regularly a volume about equal to what it has produced. Ten years ago the production of Argentina was under 3,000,000 barrels annually, by 1929 it had risen to 9,391,000 barrels, it dropped back a bit in 1930 and then jumped to 13,000,000 barrels in 1932. During the year 1932 the outstanding features in production were the expansion in production of subsidiaries of the Royal Dutch group and an increase of more than 100 percent in the output of the Province of Salta. Refinery development has in general kept pace with increased crude oil production.

Argentina is the only nation in Latin America and one of the few in the world that is directly concerned with the production, refining,

and marketing of petroleum. Since 1910 the Government has been in the oil business. The Government commission operating the industry, known as *Yacimientos Petrolíferos Fiscales*, produced in 1932 nearly one-half of the oil produced in the country. There are critics, both Argentine and foreign, who state that the law with respect to petroleum development could be modified to make for an increase in production ample for Argentine requirements.

During the past few years there has been considerable agitation for the modification of the oil law and the concentration of jurisdiction entirely within the National Government.

Some confusion and legal difficulties have occurred within recent years through the Provinces being able to follow the policy of the National Government in establishing reserve zones available for exploration and exploitation only by Government agencies. During the past year the Province of Salta has, through a decree of the Governor, become a reserve area in which the Province may explore, or entrust exploration to, *Yacimientos Petrolíferos Fiscales* or to private companies by special arrangement. In the event of allocation to companies, zones of 2,000 hectares<sup>1</sup> are to be granted alternately with those granted to *Yacimientos Petrolíferos Fiscales*. Conditions under which exploration and exploitation shall be conducted are to be determined in each case by agreement between the provincial Government and the interested company.

During the early months of 1933 there has been considerable agitation in a number of Argentine publications for a return to the exploration system existing prior to 1924. It is understood that in connection with this publicity an effort is being made to eliminate the exploration restrictions against private companies in the new national petroleum bill which has been presented to the last two sessions of the Argentine Congress.

Bolivia is at present almost entirely dependent upon foreign oil, although potential oil areas have been definitely proven east of the Andes. In 1932 the production was reported at 44,000 barrels, but it is understood that most of this was used in development work. The remoteness of the oil area from population centers and the lack of adequate transportation facilities have not been favorable to exploitation. One of the local companies that is said to control 2,000,000 hectares of possible oil-producing land is now attempting to secure foreign capital for development work.

Colombia, which did not pass the million-barrel mark in production until 1925, produced in both 1929 and 1930 more than 20,000,000 barrels. During 1931 and 1932 there has been a slackening in oil development and output has been substantially reduced. Probably

<sup>1</sup> Hectare equals 2.47 acres.



the outstanding event in the oil history of Colombia in recent years was the settling of the Barco Concession questions in June 1931. Through presidential approval the canceled Barco Concession came to life as a new contract with a consolidated group of former concessionaires. Although exploration work is extremely difficult in the Motilone jungle country, work on the concession is, nevertheless, progressing steadily. Work preliminary to drilling is under way and equipment is being brought in by boat from Lake Maracaibo up the Catatumbo and Tarra Rivers to Puerto Reyes, from which point it will be transported by a narrow-gage railway line to a camp about 3 or 4 miles away.

During the past year a number of new concessions have been granted and several others are receiving consideration. But the Tropical Oil Co. continues to be the only commercially producing organization in the country.

Cuba has had a small production of petroleum for a number of years; in 1931 it amounted to 11,000 barrels. Considerable interest in the subject of oil development has been evinced in Cuban governmental circles, and commercially at least one company is known to have been engaged in geological reconnaissance.

Ecuador has had a rapid rise in oil production during the last 10 years. At the beginning of the decade the output was less than 100,000 barrels annually, by 1927 it had risen to 537,000 barrels, which was more than doubled in the following 2 years, and the peak of 1,762,000 barrels was reached in 1931. There are several companies operating in Ecuador but the Anglo-Ecuadorian is the major producer.

While the trend in production in Mexico has continued downward during recent years it does not follow that this reduction is due to exhaustion of potential production. As a matter of fact Mexican wells drilled in proven areas are tremendously productive. Mexico's declining production is coupled with domestic problems of policy and the world economic situation. Like a number of other Latin American countries it has not been benefited by the burden of a duty imposed by its leading customer for crude oil. The refinery capacity, like crude oil production, has been on the decline. In 1925 there were 19 refineries, in 1931 there were only 9 with but 5 in operation. However, during 1932 a new refinery was put in operation just outside of Mexico City by El Águila and this was connected by a pipe line with the oil fields in the State of Vera Cruz. This pipe line is especially interesting because of the variation in altitude in its 223 kilometer length. From a height of 296 feet at Palma Sola it rises to a maximum of 8,749 feet in a distance of 120 kilometers<sup>2</sup> and then with undulations drops down over 1,000 feet to the Federal District.

<sup>2</sup> Kilometer equals 0.62 mile.

While "wildecating" is on the decline in Mexico, one of the recent developments is in the northeastern part of the country where a new gas and oil area has been opened.

Peru reached the peak of production in 1929 with 13,422,000 barrels. Since then it has declined to 9,900,000 barrels in 1932. The earliest oil pool developed in the Peruvian coastal area is now over 40 years old and is still producing. There have been no outstanding developments in the oil industry in Peru for a number of years. The decline in production is due to restriction as the potential capacity is far in excess of production. Better prices and more demand will increase Peruvian production.

Trinidad came in as a commercial producer of petroleum about 25 years ago and every year since then, with the exception of 1919, the output has been on the increase. During the past decade production has increased from 3,051,000 barrels to 10,122,000 barrels in 1932. For several years there has been a falling off in the amount of footage drilled. Except for a few company changes there have been no marked alterations in the oil industry of the island peculiar to the domestic situation. Outside the island two important legal conditions have affected the industry. The United States excise tax on petroleum imports has restricted exports while British Empire preference has stimulated them.

Venezuela in 1932 was the third largest producer of petroleum in the world, with a production of 61 percent of the Latin American total. The peak year in production was 1929, when 137,472,000 barrels of oil were produced. Last year the production was 115,291,000 barrels. This decline was due to a continuation and intensification of the curtailment which marked 1931. While the United States excise tax on imports (since June 1932) may have had some bearing upon curtailment it appears the clear effect of the tax was a shift in the ownership of one of the major companies and a shift in the destination of petroleum products from the Netherland West Indies, the refining center for Venezuelan crude. In this connection it should be noted that Curaçao and Aruba have two of the largest oil refineries in the world.

The principal producing field in Venezuela continues to be Lagunillas in the Maracaibo Basin; this field in 1932 produced nearly one half of the country's total and in its cumulative output has produced nearly one half of the total output of Venezuela since the commercial inception of the industry.

In spite of the fact that drilling has been at a low point for several years there have been interesting developments. Among these are the Cumerebo field located on the north coast of Venezuela in the State of Falcón and the Quiriquire field in eastern Venezuela.

In other parts of Latin America, notably Brazil, Chile, and in several Central American countries, there has developed an intensive interest in petroleum possibilities, but to this date nothing of commercial importance has developed.

*Production of Crude Oil in Latin American Countries, 1922 to 1932*

(In thousands of barrels)

Countries	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932 <sup>1</sup>
Argentina ..	2,866	3,400	4,639	6,336	7,952	8,630	9,070	9,391	9,002	11,709	13,000
Bolivia .....								(?)	56	25	44
Cuba .....										12	(3)
Colombia .....	323	424	445	1,007	6,444	15,014	19,897	20,385	20,346	18,237	16,390
Ecuador .....	60	87	100	160	214	527	1,084	1,350	1,553	1,762	1,597
Mexico .....	182,278	149,585	139,678	115,515	90,421	64,121	50,151	44,688	39,530	33,039	32,805
Peru .....	5,314	5,699	8,379	9,252	10,762	10,127	12,006	13,422	12,449	10,089	9,900
Trinidad .....	2,445	3,051	4,057	4,387	5,278	5,380	7,684	8,716	9,419	9,744	10,122
Venezuela ..	2,201	4,201	9,042	19,687	37,226	63,134	105,749	137,472	136,669	116,613	115,291
Total...	195,487	166,447	166,340	156,344	158,297	166,943	205,641	235,424	229,024	201,230	199,149

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary.

<sup>2</sup> Less than 1,000 barrels.

<sup>3</sup> Not available.





## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD NOTES

*New Chairman and members.*—His Excellency the Minister of Guatemala, Dr. Adrián Recinos, vice chairman of the Governing Board, opened the regular meeting of the Board on April 5. After welcoming three new members, His Excellency Dr. Enrique Bordaberry, Minister of Paraguay; Dr. Henri Debayle, Chargé d'Affaires of Nicaragua, and Señor Don Carlos Izaguirre, Chargé d'Affaires of Honduras, the vice chairman nominated as chairman the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, to fill the vacancy caused by the retirement of the Hon. Henry L. Stimson. This nomination, after being seconded by the Ambassador of Peru, was unanimously approved. Thereupon Mr. Hull was conducted to the meeting and welcomed by the vice chairman in the following words:

I have the pleasure to inform you that the Governing Board has unanimously elected you as Chairman for the present year. On behalf of my colleagues, I am very happy to welcome you. I hope you will find time and patience to help us with the business of the Governing Board.

The Chairman replied:

I am, of course, highly appreciative of this very gracious compliment which naturally is not intended for me personally but rather for my Government and my country, and for this reason I want to say that I value it all the more.

This, to me, is a very interesting occasion for a number of reasons. When I came to the Congress here in Washington some twenty-six years ago I decided that a Member of Congress would never accomplish anything unless he tried to specialize in some important line, and probably he would not accomplish anything then. I decided to make it a part of my choice of subjects to investigate problems and conditions relating to economics, finance, and taxation. The result is that I have sought through the years that followed to keep to some extent familiar with the financial and economic conditions in each important country of the world and especially the countries of North and South America.

I have watched with increasing interest the improved relations between our various countries in this hemisphere. I have always believed that economic relations in large measure underlie all other relations between peoples. I have always believed that you can measure the political, social, and other standards





Photograph by Underwood & Underwood.

THE HONORABLE CORDELL HULL.  
SECRETARY OF STATE OF THE UNITED STATES AND NEW CHAIRMAN  
OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.

of a people by the amount of commerce they produce and create, both among themselves and with other countries. I think you can determine the standards of civilization itself more accurately by a careful analysis of the economic ideals and aims and purposes of a people and the extent to which they develop those objects and purposes; so with the opportunities that lie ahead for your countries and mine, after we gradually emerge from this unprecedented panic condition, I think that commerce will develop and progress more during the next generation through the leadership of the people of North and South America than that of any other people on the planet. We have that opportunity; I am sure we have that aim.

I know that each country to the south of us can be relied upon to bestir itself to exercise vision and to look forward and upward, to catch step with those who would undertake to bring their peoples back to higher standards of living and morals and of government and ultimately to reach that most happy level of human existence that ought to be the aspirations of all peoples, everywhere. But I must beg your pardon; when I commence to talk about relations between nations and relations between persons, I may proceed for an hour before I realize it. It is sufficient for me to say that I know there will be friendly rivalry between your peoples and mine in a constant effort, if possible, to promote more close relations of comradeship, more genuine relations of good fellowship, and more lasting relations of friends than have existed in the past.

Again I thank you for this exceedingly nice compliment.

*Resolution of sympathy for the United States.*—On motion of the Chargé of Costa Rica, Señor Don Manuel González Zeledón, the Board voted to express its sympathy to the United States and to the families of the victims in the recent California earthquakes and the Akron disaster. These condolences were extended through the Chairman of the Board, the Secretary of State. The resolution further provided that the flag of the Pan American Union should be flown at half mast, and that the motion should be published in the BULLETIN.

*Inter-American Commission on Patents.*—The Director General informed the Board that Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, the United States, and Venezuela had appointed members of the Inter-American Commission on Patents created by the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference which met at Washington in 1931. The Chairman of the Board expressed the hope that the remaining countries of the Union would soon appoint their respective representatives on the Commission.

*Resolution in honor of the Counselor.*—The following resolution was submitted by the Director General and unanimously voted by the Board:

Whereas, the Counselor of the Pan American Union, Mr. Franklin Adams, has just completed 25 years of service:

Therefore, be it resolved by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, To extend to Mr. Adams sincere congratulations as well as an expression of appreciation for the devoted service which he has rendered.

An account of the special Pan American Day session of the Governing Board will be given in the next issue of the BULLETIN.

*Prize novel.*—The review *Atenea*, published by the University of Concepción, Chile, has announced the 1932 award of its annual literary prize, granted to Joaquín Edwards Bello for his novel *Valparaíso*. This is the third time the award has been made. In 1930 the short-story writer Manuel Rojas was adjudged the prize winner; the 1931 award was divided between Alberto Romero, Eugenio González, and Alberto Ried. In commenting upon the award to Señor Edwards Bello, *Atenea* makes special reference to him as a journalist and novelist who for more than 20 years has been considered a leading literator in his native country.

*Venezuelan periodicals.*—A directory of 333 periodicals published in Venezuela appears in a supplement to the *Gaceta Oficial* of that country for February 3, 1933. It was compiled by the *Dirección de Estadística y Comunicaciones* and includes, in addition to the title of the periodical, the year in which it was established, place and frequency of publication, character of contents, and number of copies in each edition.

*Gifts to national libraries.*—By a decree of the President of Argentina the National Library in Buenos Aires has presented to the National Library in Managua 300 volumes from its duplicate collection, established for exchange purposes.

The National Library of Uruguay has accepted the library of the late José Mainginou from his widow, Doña Ángela Pérez Cantera de Mainginou, and has decided to honor the donation by placing it in a special section of the library. The decree of the President of Uruguay accepting the donation and expressing the thanks of the Government provides for shelving the books, which are to be known as the "Mainginou Collection."

*Park libraries.*—Reports from Guatemala City indicate that the suggestion now under consideration that public libraries be established in the parks of the city has been well received. According to an editorial in a recent issue of *Diario de Centro América*, the success of the experiment seems possible, both as a cultural contribution and as an experiment in library methods. The project suggests a trial library in one of the four kiosks of Central Park. The kiosk will be loaned by the municipality for the purpose and will be furnished and administered by the Ministry of Public Education through trained librarians. If the movement is popular the authorities hope to extend it by the addition of a children's reading room.

It will be recalled that the pedestals supporting the statues of Don Quixote and Sancho Panza, which flank the Quixote fountain in Chapultepec Park, Mexico City, also serve as bookcases.

*Port au Prince libraries.*—A recent survey of libraries in Port au Prince, Haiti, lists seven libraries actively engaged in supplying the book requirements of students and other residents of that city. Five of these libraries contain a total of 8,730 books; the others are connected with schools and are solely for the use of students.

*Accessions.*—Since last reported in these notes the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union has received 419 volumes and pamphlets, from among which the following are noted:

*Obras poéticas completas* [de] Rubén Darío, ordenación y prólogo de Alberto Ghirardo. Madrid, M. Aguilar, 1932. 1263 p. front. (port.) 15½ cm.

*El General San Martín*, su vida narrada a la juventud, por B. González Arriol. . . . Barcelona, Araluce [1932?] 190 p. col. plates. 17½ cm. (Los grandes hechos de los grandes hombres.)

*Cartas de relación de la conquista de México*, [por] Hernán Cortés . . . 2ª. edición. Madrid, Barcelona, Espasa-Calpe, 1932. 2 v. 19½ cm. (Viajes clásicos núm. 19-20.)

*Historia del Almirante don Cristóbal Colón*, por su hijo don Hernando. Traducida nuevamente del italiano. . . . Madrid, Librería general de Victoriano Suárez, 1932. 2 v. 18 cm. (Colección de libros raros o curiosos que tratan de América. 1ª. serie. tomos v-vi.)

*Glosario sentimental* [por] Víctor H. Escala. Caracas, Lit. y tip. Vargas, 1930. 239 p. 20½ cm.

*Colón* (su nacionalidad, el predescubrimiento de América, su tumba y el faro conmemorativo) [por] Tulio M. Cestero. Buenos Aires, Librería "Cervantes" de Julio Suárez, 1933. 94 p. fascims., diagrs. 19 cm.

*Manuel Valdés* (el martir artemiseño); monografía histórica, por Leandro E. Rodríguez. . . . Artemisa, Cuba, Imprenta Robainas, 1930. 51 p. plates. 22 cm.

*Las exploraciones en Monte Albán, temporada 1931-32*, por el Dr. Alfonso Caso. Informe preparado para el Primer Congreso del Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e Historia, que se celebrará en Río de Janeiro en el mes de diciembre de 1932. 34 p. plates (part. col.). fold. diagrs. 22½ cm. (Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e Historia. Publicación no. 7.)

*Riquezas e segredos da Amazonia* [por] Saladino de Gusmão. [Rio de Janeiro, Typ. São Benedicto, 1932.] 195 p. 23½ cm.

*Panamá y su legislación social* [por el] doctor José Guillermo Lewis. 1ª. edición. Madrid, Javier Morata, 1932. 254 p. 18½ cm.

*El régimen español en Venezuela*, estudio histórico [por] C. Parra-Pérez. Madrid, Javier Morata, 1932. 284 p. 19½ cm.

*El método Decroly en el plan de Las Piedras* [por] Sabas Olaizola. . . . Montevideo, Imprenta nacional Colorada, 1932. 237 p. illus. 20½ cm.

*Trozos de vida* [por] Manuel G. Prada. París, 1933. 176 p. front. (port.). 18 cm.

*Don Manuel* [por] Luis Alberto Sánchez. . . . (1ª. ed.) Lima, F. y E. Rosay, 1930. 266 p. 21½ cm. (Biblioteca Peruana.)

*Agua mineral e anaphylaxia*; estudo experimental da accção da agua sulfurosa de Poços de Caldas sobre os processos biológicos da anaphylaxia. [Por] Omar Franqueira. . . . [Bello Horizonte, Imprensa official de Minas Geraes, 1930.] 96 p. 21 cm.

*Las inscripciones*. Por Manuel Martínez Escobar. . . . 1ª. edición. La Habana, Jesús Montero [n.d.]. 2 v. 24½ cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, vol. ii, iv.)



*Accidentes del trabajo* (Cuba) . . . comentarios y notas por el Dr. Raúl López Castillo. . . . La Habana, Jesús Montero [1930]. 329 p. 24½ cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, vol. iii.)

*Formulario para los juzgados municipales* . . . por el Dr. Lorenzo Delgado Díaz. . . . 1ª. ed. . . . La Habana, Jesús Montero [n.d.]. 465 p. 24 cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, volumen I.)

*La clasificación bibliográfica decimal*; exposición del sistema y de sus tablas compendiadas, por Luis Méndez Albarrán. . . . Badajoz, Spain, Tipografía y librería de Antonio Arqueros, 1931. 237 p. 25½ cm. (Publicación n.º. 167 del Instituto Internacional de Bibliografía.)

*Nomenclatura de productos químicos*, confeccionada por Emilio Court Señoret . . . y A. Wachholtz . . . Valparaíso, Imprenta y encuad. Roma, 1932. 219 l. 27 cm.

*Diplomacia, historia, periodismo* [por] Pedro Ugarteche. Lima [Imprenta "San Cristobal"], 1932. 189 p. 21½ cm.

*San Martín*, door Mr. J. H. Van Peursem . . . 's Gravenhage, Philatelie en Geschiedenis [1932?]. 16 p. illus., plates, port. 23½ cm. (Philatelie en geschiedenis, nr. 13.)

*El recurso de amparo*, por el Dr. Raúl López Castillo. . . . Primera edición. La Habana, Jesús Montero, 1932. 157 p. 24½ cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, volumen IX.)

*Los municipios cubanos a través de la jurisprudencia* . . . por el Dr. Augusto Venegas Muíña . . . y Augusto Venegas y Pazos. . . . La Habana, Jesús Montero, 1932. tomo 1. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, volumen VIII.)

*En tiempos de los virreyes; Miranda y la gestación de nuestra independencia* [por] Carlos A. Pueyrredón. [Buenos Aires], Rosso, 1932. 337 p. ports., facsim. (part. fold.). 20 cm.

*Bibliotecas y bibliotecarios* [por] Hanny Simons. . . . La Plata, Olivieri y Domínguez, 1932. 146 p. front. (port.). 25 cm.

*Las obras de Vicuña Mackenna*; estudio bibliográfico precedido de un panorama de la labor literaria del escritor [por] Guillermo Feliú Cruz. [Santiago de Chile], Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1932. 226 p. front. (port.), plates, ports. 28 cm.

*Frances Toor's Guide to Mexico*, compact and up-to-date, by the editor of Mexican Folkways. Mexico, 1933. 160 p. fold., maps. 18 cm.

*La diplomacia*, evolución, profesionalidad, reglamentación [por] Dr. Raúl Rodríguez Araya. . . . Rosario [Talleres gráficos Fenner], 1932. 178 p. 19½ cm.

*Almanaque de El Mundo*; el libro de la vida nacional, 1933. . . . Año tercero. Habana, Compañía editora "Almanaque de El Mundo." 448 p. 21½ cm.

*Hispanismos en el Guaraní*, estudio sobre la penetración de la cultura española en el guaraní, según se refleja en la lengua. [Por] Marcos A. Morínigo. Buenos Aires [Talleres s.a. casa Jacobo Peuser, lta.], 1931. 432 p. 23½ cm. (Facultad de filosofía y letras de la Universidad de Buenos Aires. Instituto de filología. Colección de estudios indigenistas. I.)

*Estudios sobre el español de Nuevo México*, por Aurelio M. Espinosa, traducción y reelaboración con notas por Amado Alonso y Ángel Rosenblat. Parte I. Fonética con nueve estudios complementarios sobre problemas de dialectología hispanoamericana, por A. Alonso. Buenos Aires [Imprenta de la Universidad de Buenos Aires], 1930. 472 p. 23½ cm. (Facultad de filosofía y letras de la Universidad de Buenos Aires. Instituto de filología. Biblioteca de dialectología hispanoamericana. I.)

*La lengua de "Martín Fierro,"* por Eleuterio F. Tiscornia. Tomo II de Martín Fierro, comentado y anotado. Buenos Aires, [Imprenta de la Universidad de Buenos Aires], 1930. 316 p. 23½ cm. 316 p. fold. map. 23½ cm. (Facultad de filosofía y letras de la Universidad de Buenos Aires. Instituto de filología, tomo III.)

*Problemas de dialectología hispanoamericana*, por Amado Alonso. Buenos Aires, 1930. 173 p. 23½ cm. (Facultad de filosofía y letras de la Universidad de Buenos Aires. Instituto de filología.)

*Fragments from an XVIIIth century diary; the travels and adventures of don Francisco de Miranda*, precursor of the independence of Spanish America. In Spain, Africa, North America, Europe and at the court of Catherine the Great of Russia. 1771-1789. Compiled and translated by Jordan Herbert Stabler, with a preface by R. B. Cunninghame Graham. Caracas, Tipografía "La Nación," 1931. 196 p. front. (port.) ports., facsim. 23½ cm.

*Exposición gráfica de Nicaragua*, 12 de octubre de 1932. Director: Guillermo Navarro Alvarado. [Managua], Tipografía Alemana Carlos Heuberger & Cía. [1932?] 96 p., incl. illus., ports. 22 cm.

*The romance and drama of the rubber industry*, by Harvey S. Firestone, jr. [Akron, The Firestone Tire & Rubber Company, 1932.] 127 p. ports. 22 cm.

*A Spanish-Mexican peasant community, Arandas in Jalisco, Mexico*, by Paul S. Taylor. Berkeley, California, University of California press, 1933. (Ibero-Americana: 4).

*O centenário da Faculdade de medicina do Rio de Janeiro, 1832-1932*. Rio de Janeiro, Typ. A. P. Barthel, 1932. 431 p. ports. 24½ cm.

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*Revista nacional de educação*. Rio de Janeiro, 1932. Anno I, no. I, outubro de 1932. 98 p. illus., plates, ports. 27 x 18 cm. Monthly. Address: Ministerio da educação e saúde publica, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

*Revista de educación*; órgano de la Asociación mexicana de profesores de las escuelas secundarias. México, 1933. Año I, núm. 1, febrero de 1933. 22½ x 17 cm. Monthly. Address: Carlos M. Elizondo, Apartado 7103, México, D. F.

*Foreign trade review*. New York City, 1932. Vol. 1, No. 1, February, 1933. 11 p. 28 x 21½ cm. Monthly. Address: National Foreign Trade Council. India House, 1 Hanover Square, New York City.

*La Mujer*; revista quincenal para la familia y el hogar. La Habana, 1932. Año iv, núm. 55, 20 de diciembre de 1932. 16 p. ports. 31½ x 23½ cm. Semi-monthly. 1 peso per year. Editor: Maria Collado y Romero. Address Hospital 44, altos, Habana, Cuba.

*Colombia commercial*; illustrated bi-weekly news bulletin of Colombian-American business. Bogotá, 1933. Year I, vol. 1, no. 1, January 31, 1933. 8 p. ports. 28 x 21 cm. Editor: Guillermo Camargo L. Address: P. O. Box No. 2534, Bogotá, Colombia.

*Extensión agrícola*; revista mensual de propaganda. San Jacinto, D. F., México, 1933. Núm. 1, febrero de 1933. 35 p. illus. 26½ x 2½ cm. Monthly. Mimeographed. Address: Departamento de extensión agrícola, San Jacinto, D. F., México.

*Belén*. Habana, 1932. Año 8º, núm. 36, noviembre-diciembre de 1932. p. [55]-108 p. illus., diagrs. 27½ cm. Bimonthly. 2.50 pesos. Address: Colegio de PP. Jesuitas, Apartado 221, Habana, Cuba.

# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## TREATIES

*Pan American Postal Convention.*—The Postal Convention and additional agreements signed November 1, 1931, at the Third Postal Congress of the Americas and Spain during its meetings in Madrid, was approved by the national Congress of COLOMBIA on November 2, 1932, and signed by the President on November 7. The convention has also been approved by Argentina, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, and Panama.

*Claims Conventions.*—A convention modifying the claims convention of 1926 between the UNITED STATES and PANAMA, signed at Washington on December 17, 1932, was ratified by Panama on December 29, 1932 and by the United States on February 23, 1933, and ratifications were exchanged at the City of Panama on March 25, 1933. According to the new convention, the commission is granted until July 1, 1933, to act upon the claims filed on or before October, 1932, and the time limit for the payment of awards is extended to July 1, 1936.

Baron Daniël Wigbold van Heeckeren has been appointed presiding commissioner of the commission established by the Claims Convention of 1926, by the President of the Permanent Administrative Council of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at the Hague, to whom the Governments of the United States and Panama applied for the nomination. Baron van Heeckeren succeeds Dr. Miguel Cruchaga Tocornal, former Ambassador of Chile to the United States, who resigned to accept the post of Minister of Foreign Relations in his country.

*Flood Control and Rectification of Rio Grande Channel.*—On February 1, 1933, a convention providing for flood control and rectifying the Rio Grande Channel in the El Paso-Juárez Valley was signed in MEXICO by the Minister of Foreign Relations, Dr. José Manuel Puig Casauranc, and the UNITED STATES Ambassador, J. Reuben Clark, jr. The convention is subject to the ratification of the Senate in each country.

According to statements issued by the two Governments, the projects agreed upon include the construction of a flood-storage reservoir in the United States, the straightening of the river channel throughout the valley, and the building of flood-control levees on both banks of

the new course from the eastern end of Cordoba Island down the river to Box Canyon, a distance of about 85 miles. The convention provides that the work should begin as soon as practicable.

On account of the devastating floods which have caused great damage in the lower Rio Grande Valley on several occasions, both Governments have considered the necessity of protecting the cities of El Paso and Juárez.

The straightening of the river channel to insure flood control makes it inevitable that in some places along its banks lands now in the United States will be on the Mexican side of the river, and in others, Mexican lands will be in United States territory. The lands thus artificially detached will become the territory and property of the nation on whose side of the river they finally lie. In order that neither nation shall suffer any territorial loss on account of this rectification, the total area of the lands so segregated from each one shall be equal.

The main objectives of the project are: to construct by means of levees a river channel adequate to care for the river at flood without inundation of the bordering country, damage to property, and danger to human lives; to establish the river in a permanent channel, so that it will no longer meander through the valley, as it has hitherto done; to stabilize as the international boundary the middle of the deepest channel of the current in the corrected course; to improve the area of arable lands by preventing, through drainage, the formation of alkali deposits; and, finally, to guarantee this condition by eliminating the sharp curves of the present river bed and preventing the formation of others.

The entire project will be carried out on a basis of strict reciprocity, with no loss of territory for either, in accordance with the principles and practices established by treaties, and without prejudice to the sovereignty of either party.

*Extradition treaties.*—On July 2, 1932, the Minister of COLOMBIA, S. Pedro Juan Navarro, and the Secretary of State of CUBA Dr. Orestes Ferrara, signed at Habana an extradition treaty between their respective countries. The treaty was approved by President Olaya Herrera of Colombia July 22 and by the Colombian Congress September 29, and promulgated by the president October 6, 1932. It will be effective from the date of the exchange of ratifications, which is to take place in Habana.

Ratifications of the extradition treaty signed in Managua by representatives of the Governments of COLOMBIA and NICARAGUA on March 25, 1929, and ratified by Colombia on November 10, 1930, and by Nicaragua on February 20, 1932, were exchanged in Bogotá July 15, 1932; the treaty went into effect August 15, 1932.—B.N.



## MEETING OF ARGENTINE AND CHILEAN MINISTERS OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS

The following is a translation of the conclusions which the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of Argentina and Chile, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas and Señor Miguel Cruchaga Tocornal, agreed to place on record at the close of the conversations which took place in Mendoza, Argentina, on February 1-2, 1933:

I. To reaffirm for the benefit of continental brotherhood (in view of the grave problems confronting the countries of America and of the persistent world-wide crisis) the cordial understanding which a community of ideas and interests has created between the two countries.

II. To work together as agreed upon at this date towards the pacific solution of the question pending between Bolivia and Paraguay, in terms compatible with international law and the sentiment of the Continent.

III. To urge the meeting of an economic conference, in the capital of a country adjacent to the countries in conflict, to consider the following points in relation to mediterranean countries or frontier regions similarly situated:

(a) The establishment of a system of commercial transportation, both terrestrial and fluvial, which would favor trade between mediterranean and maritime countries;

(b) The study of possible agreements regarding railway and highway communications for the different geographic regions of certain mediterranean countries or of frontier regions where conditions are similar:

(c) The formulation of an agreement between the nations bordering on stated international rivers to improve their navigability.

IV. To make general and permanent the agreement<sup>1</sup> signed on August 6, 1932, in order to consider all questions of American policy in which the maintenance of peace is concerned.

V. To place on record Chile's interest in and approval of the Argentine project of an anti-war and conciliation treaty, the bases of which deserve full acceptance.

VI. That in due course the two Governments should communicate with each other, as the course of affairs on the Continent may make advisable, in regard to the topics on the agenda of the approaching International Conference of American States, to be held in Montevideo.

VII. To study by discussion in a special Chilean-Argentine commission or by bringing the question before either the next International Conference of American States or other competent collective international bodies, practical means for assuring the reestablishment of the principles governing neutrality and the prior declaration of war, in relation to hostilities begun without regard to those principles.

VIII. To sign the act dealing with the commercial *modus vivendi* now in force between the two countries, in accordance with the terms of the notes exchanged on the subject on this date; and to initiate within one month the study by a mixed commission of the bases of a permanent treaty of commerce which will satisfy the reciprocal interests of the two countries.

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<sup>1</sup> Between Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Perú.

IX. To continue the study of the best means of arriving at a definitive solution of the question of the maintenance of traffic over the Transandine Railway, as likewise the possibilities of the other projected transandine railways.

X. To seek forthwith a solution of the Beagle Channel question, either by direct negotiations or through the prompt ratification by the two Governments of the protocol of 1915 in order to arbitrate the question as provided therein, this being the only question pending between the two countries.

XI. In view of the European economic outlook and the World Economic Conference to urge that the conference referred to in paragraph III consider the bases of a common economic policy and of unified action.

XII. To urge the ratification or modification of the Extradition Treaty of 1910 and the 1903 Convention concerning the procedure for rogatory commissions. To study the possibility of negotiating conventions on the practice of liberal professions, the suppression of contraband and the establishment of a system of drawbacks; an agreement on the exchange of information relative to civil status; and an agreement on the exchange of information with respect to population censuses.

To study the ratification of the 1910 convention on boundary police.

XIII. To study a contract formula which would permit the granting of exclusive commercial privileges between contiguous and nearby countries or, as a general aspiration, between the Latin-American nations.

XIV. To transmit immediately and simultaneously a copy of this Act to the Governments of Brazil and Peru.



## THE PAN AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

The meeting of the Fourth Congress of the Pan American Medical Association at Dallas, Tex., March 21 to 26, 1933, was, in regard to the number of physicians registered, and also to the number and importance of the papers presented, one of the most successful yet held. The social functions given in connection with the meeting were elaborate and cordial.

It will be recalled that the first organization by this name came into existence in 1900 and ended with its third meeting in San Francisco in 1915, probably on account of the adverse influence of the World War.

The present body was founded in New York, in 1926, by physicians of the United States, without reference to the previous organization. At first, it was local in character, but, in 1929, became truly international, when it met in Habana, Cuba, under the presidency of Dr. Francisco M. Fernández. As at present organized, the organization known as the Pan American Medical Association is the permanent continuing body. Each successive meeting is designated a *Congress*, the one just concluded being the *Fourth Congress of the Pan American Medical Association*, the second and third Congresses having been held in Panama and Mexico City, respectively.

There were about 1,200 physicians present at the Dallas meeting. Mexico and Cuba were well represented and Colombia and Venezuela each sent delegates. Physicians in all Latin American countries sent in contributions in the way of scientific papers of exhibits or both.

The Congress met in sections, in groups, in general sessions, and at round table conferences. Dr. John O. McReynolds, president of the Fourth Congress, was elected president of the association, to succeed Dr. Francisco M. Fernández, who held that office since the association was organized.

The Fifth Congress is to be held probably in 1935, the manner, time, and place to be determined by the Board of Trustees, who will also designate the president of the Congress. It is proposed to charter a steamer which will set out from New York, transporting all who embark in that city first to Miami, Fla., where clinics and sessions will be held, thence to Habana, Panama, and possibly to Colombia, the Congress terminating in Caracas, Venezuela.—B. J. LLOYD.



## THE DISTRIBUTION OF COMMUNAL LANDS IN MEXICO

One hundred military engineers placed at the disposal of the Department of Agriculture and the National Agrarian Commission by the President of the Republic are at present engaged in dividing and distributing among the inhabitants of rural communities the communal lands restored or granted to the villages by the numerous agrarian reform measures enacted since the Revolution. That the communal system of landholding generated serious abuses is recognized by the President, who states, as one of the reasons for his action, that in many cases the village administrative committees have diverted to their own use the product of the communal lands to the detriment of the individuals whom the law desired to benefit and of the rural community in general.<sup>1</sup> In ordering the division of the communal holdings into small parcels to be used and enjoyed privately, the Government hopes to stimulate the agricultural production of the country by giving the villagers a sense of security and thereby an incentive to cultivate their land more intensively.

In addition to meeting the shortcomings and correcting the abuses inherent in communal landholding, the division and distribution of the ejidos enforces legislation long on the statute books. It was not the intention of the Law of January 6, 1915,<sup>2</sup> which established the fundamental bases of the agrarian reform movement in Mexico, to reestablish the system of communal landholding. On the contrary, in pro-

<sup>1</sup> *Acuerdo a las Secretarías de Guerra y Marina y de Agricultura y Fomento*, Sept. 29, 1932.

<sup>2</sup> *El Constitucionalista*, Jan. 9, 1915.

viding means for the villagers to recover the land of which they had been dispossessed, or to acquire by grant those lands which they needed for their welfare and development, it made provisions for the distribution of such lands to the individual villagers. Thus, Article 11 stated: "A regulatory law shall determine . . . the manner and time in which they [the lands restored or adjudged in behalf of the villages] shall be distributed among the inhabitants who, in the meantime, shall enjoy the possession of them in common." The law looked forward to individual ownership of the tillable soil, with certain safeguards to protect the individual from speculators and ambitious politicians. It resorted temporarily to common possession and use for purposes of convenience only.

Article 27 of the Mexican Constitution of 1917 sanctioned the basic principles of the agrarian reform as established by the Law of January 6, 1915, and following the spirit of Article 11 provided that properties held by the village from the past, returned by way of restitution, or given by way of grant may be held in common "until such time as the manner of making the division of the lands shall be determined by law."

In order to fulfill the obligations imposed by the Law of January 6, 1915, and Article 27 of the Constitution, the President of the Republic issued a law on August 25, 1927,<sup>3</sup> regulating the division and adjudication of the common lands among those inhabitants of the villages entitled to this benefit. However, the condition of the national treasury had heretofore prevented the National Agrarian Commission from engaging a group of engineers sufficiently large to carry out its provisions speedily.

The present division and distribution is being carried out in those villages where legal title to the communal lands has already been granted by Presidential action. As provided by law<sup>4</sup> first the engineers set aside an urban zone where a lot is to be provided for a rural school and an agricultural experimental field. Second, the remaining lands are classified—forest and pasture, tilled or tillable. Then the tilled or tillable area is divided into lots of a minimum area to be fixed by the National Agrarian Commission with the consent of the President. Except in cases where the villager has other sources of income besides the land to be adjudged to him, or in cases of units, such as irrigation works, which are indivisible and require for their exploitation the cooperative efforts of all the farmers, the size of the lots must not be less than the minimum or exceed the maximum specified in Article 17 of the Law for the Donation and Restitution of

<sup>3</sup> *Ley que reforma la Reglamentaria sobre Repartición de Tierras Ejidales y Constitución del Patrimonio Parcelario Ejidal de 19 de diciembre de 1925*, *Diario Oficial*, Aug. 30, 1927.

<sup>4</sup> *Decreto que modifica la Ley del Patrimonio Ejidal y la de Ejidos, vigentes*, *Diario Oficial*, Dec. 31, 1932, Art. 15.



Land and Water.<sup>5</sup> This article fixes the size of the lot that may be granted to each of the villagers entitled to receive land, as follows:

Character of land:	Area (Hectares <sup>1</sup> )
Irrigated or moisture-retaining lands.....	3 to 5
Crop lands, first grade.....	4 to 6
Crop lands, second grade.....	6 to 10
Summer pasture lands.....	8 to 12
Summer pasture lands for stock raising.....	24
Timber lands.....	5 to 10
Arid or hilly lands.....	48

<sup>1</sup> Hectare equals 2.47 acres.

In those villages that have more land than is needed at present by the inhabitants, a reserve zone will be formed with the excess lots which may be granted to the sons of villagers when they marry or reach the age of 16, as well as to farmers from neighboring villages where there is a scarcity of land. If there is not enough land to go around, the available acreage is to be increased either by bringing into cultivation pasture or forest lands or by irrigation or draining with the cooperation of all the farmers in the village. The law pledges the financial assistance of the Department of Agriculture or the National Agricultural Credit Bank in these undertakings. If it is not possible to meet the needs of the village in this manner, a statement to the effect that there is not sufficient land will be prepared. In such a case a recent amendment<sup>6</sup> to the Law of Donation and Restitution of Land and Water simplifies and shortens the process of obtaining additional land for the village.

The division of the communal lands began in the villages having sufficient land to give each farmer a plot, and is to continue in those whose area for distribution can be increased through minor irrigation projects, as well as in villages having sufficient funds or credit with which to acquire additional land. The last villages in which the division will be made are those in which the original land grant will have to be amplified or new agricultural centers created.

Once the project for the division and distribution of the land has been prepared by the engineers, it will be submitted to the consideration of the interested villagers at a meeting called by the representative of the National Agrarian Commission, who in turn will submit to that body all pertinent observations made. During the following 30 days any villager who so desires may submit separately to the Commission any observation he may wish to make. Once the Commission has passed final judgment on the project the distribution of the lots begin. Unmarried men over 16, married men, unmarried women, or

<sup>5</sup> *Ley que refunde en la de Dotaciones y Restituciones de Tierras y Aguas, las reformas y adiciones a la misma, contenidas en Decreto de 17 de enero de 1929, Diario Oficial, June 1, 1929.*

<sup>6</sup> *Decreto que reforma la Ley de Dotaciones y Restituciones de Tierras y Aguas, Diario Oficial, Dec. 31, 1932.*

widows who support families are entitled to receive an individual parcel according to the law.<sup>7</sup> Excluded specifically are: Those who own land equal to or greater in area than that which they would receive; those who can be shown to have a capital of more than 2,500 pesos; Federal, State, or private employees who have a salary of more than 75 pesos a month; and professional men.<sup>8</sup>

In making the distribution of the lots among the farmers entitled to receive them, preference is given in the following order: (1) Villagers or the heirs of villagers who were shown to be eligible by the census taken at the time the village obtained its communal lands by way of restitution or grant, provided they are cultivating the plot; (2) villagers who do not appear in the census but have tilled their plots regularly for more than two years; (3) those who appeared in the census and are not working any lot but desire to do so; (4) those who have a recently adjudicated plot; (5) farmers who have reached the age at which they are entitled to a plot and do not have one; (6) farmers from other villages where there is not sufficient land. An effort will be made to assign a particular plot to the man who has been occupying it or has made improvements on it; the other lands will be distributed by lot.

When there is not sufficient land to make up the necessary number of lots for all those entitled to them, the potential beneficiaries are eliminated in the inverse order of the above-mentioned preferences, and within each of those preferences in the following order: (1) single men over 18<sup>9</sup> and under 21; (2) single men over 21; (3) married men without families; and (4) married men with families.

A list is made of farmers without land because they were eliminated from the distribution of lots in their own village, so that they may be placed: in the reserve zones of others where there is an excess of land; on lots which might be reclaimed from untilled common lands through minor irrigation projects carried out by the National Agrarian Commission with the cooperation of the National Irrigation Commission; on land acquired by the farmers themselves through the financial assistance of the National Agricultural Credit Bank; on lots which may be assigned to them in one of the national irrigation systems; on lands which are divided by the National Agricultural Credit Bank and other similar institutions; in new agricultural centers that the Federal Government may establish; and on the lots provided through an increase in the amount of land originally granted to a village.

One million pesos is to be placed annually at the disposal of the National Agricultural Credit Bank for the construction of minor

<sup>7</sup> *Ley . . . de Dotaciones y Restituciones de Tierras y Aguas*, art. 15.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, art. 16.

<sup>9</sup> *Sic.*—EDITOR.

irrigation projects and the erection of houses for farmers whose place of residence has been shifted as a result of the land distribution.

The ejidos in which the land has been distributed to individuals remain under the economic protection of the National Agricultural Credit Bank which, together with the Department of Agriculture, is in charge of the supervision, control, organization, and improvement of agricultural production, cooperative organization, and the securing of credit for improvements in the land and homes of the villagers.

The form of ownership by which the individual holds his parcel of land is a recognition of the difficulties under which the villager labors. He has permanent possession and usufruct of the soil and its improvements, with all rights of inheritance, as long as he works his parcel of land. Neglect to till the land for more than one year or death without heirs are the only conditions under which his parcel can return to the village commune for reallocation. Otherwise, not even the Federal Executive can take it away from him, unless he is compensated with a similar parcel in the immediate vicinity and is paid in cash for the improvements he may have made on it. On the other hand, to protect him from his own weakness and the ambitions of unscrupulous persons, his private property right is limited by the fact that under no condition whatsoever can he alienate either the soil or its products, not even by rental or mortgage. Coexistent with this right to limited private ownership of his own parcel, the villager also possesses communal rights to the usufruct of the village pasture lands, water, and forests, which are administered for purposes of common use by an elected committee (*Comisariado Ejidal*) under the supervision of a *Consejo de Vigilancia*, also elected by the local community. Here again, however, the law provides that the village has not the right of transfer, rental, mortgage, or alienation in any form whatsoever.

Paragraph VI of Article 20 of the Law of August 25, 1927, which provided that a person to whom a parcel of common land was allotted should pay annually 15 percent of the crops obtained from his parcel, or its equivalent, for taxes, material improvements, and the formation of a cooperative fund, has been abolished. The States of the Federation are forbidden to levy any taxes on ejidal property except a predial tax, which in no case may amount to more than 5 percent of the gross production of the ejido.—G.A.S.

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## THE FREE PORT OF TURIAMO IN VENEZUELA

In conformity with a law of May 25, 1928, creating the Free Port of Turiamo, and in view of the fact that the preliminary studies of the work to be done there have been made, the President of the Republic issued on January 9, 1933, a decree ordering that work on



the project be commenced at once. On the same date he also ordered work begun on a highway which should connect the port with the Maracay-Valencia Highway at or near Guacara.

The port of Turiamo, considered by many travelers as second only to Rio de Janeiro in natural beauty, lies in the State of Carabobo almost in the center of the northern coast of Venezuela, about 20 miles east of Puerto Cabello and the same distance northwest of Maracay, the rich cattle region of the country. Besides its great commercial advantages, the new port will give a great impetus to tourist travel, since passengers may be landed at Turiamo and taken aboard again later at the port of La Guaira. As an added attraction for travelers, the Government is planning to build on the summit of the mountains overlooking the port a modern tropical hotel.

It is interesting to note that the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference, which met at Washington in October 1931, discussed free ports and approved a resolution recommending to the governments of the American nations the establishment of such ports. In the discussion Mr. R. S. MacElwee spoke of Turiamo as follows:

It was our honor to design the terminals at Turiamo, Venezuela, for General Juan Vicente Gómez. It was possible in that beautiful bay to lay out a marginal quay type of construction of several thousand feet of water front with transit sheds for general merchandise and passenger accommodations, and immediately in the rear a series of modern warehouses easily reached by fast and efficient electrical industrial trucks. At as great a distance inland from shipside as the terrain would permit was constructed on paper, in the drawings, a double steel fence with a 21-foot space between the two fences along which guards could walk. In other words, any smuggler would have to climb two 10-foot high barbed wire and steel fences and cross the beat of the customs guards. At the corners of the enclosure and with a view commanding the full stretch of each leg in the enclosure were steel-concrete towers for the guards, with a machine gun pill box and rifle stands and peep holes. This was a guard against any attempt to rush the merchandise in the stockade in case of mob violence.

It will be seen that at Turiamo the only addition to the well-designed modern terminal, from the freight and passenger handling standpoint, to create the physical features of a free port and to protect properly the revenue of the country, was this double fence with the guard towers at the corners. Ornamental gates and gate houses for customs officials guarded the main entrances to the free port.

By the law of May 25, 1928, signed by the President June 2 of the same year, by which the Free Port of Turiamo was created in accordance with provisions of the tariff law, the Federal Executive was authorized to equip the port for foreign commerce once the necessary port works and administrative buildings, including a customhouse, had been completed. The law also stipulated that at Turiamo no taxes should be levied on freight or passenger vessels entering or leaving the port, whatever their class, tonnage, or nationality. Importers may leave merchandise in special customs warehouses, whether all or only a part is eventually to enter Venezuela, for the



port of Turiamo will also function as a port of transit and transshipment.

Immediately after the law of May 25, 1928, had been promulgated, President Gómez sent a special message to Congress in which he offered to the nation property then belonging to him on the site of Turiamo, for the construction of customhouse, warehouses, and other public offices.

On January 5, 1933, President Gómez sent telegrams to the Presidents of the States of Sucre, Anzoátegui, Monagas, Apure, and Guarico, giving them special instructions to center this year all public works activities to be carried out according to the outline prepared by the Government, on the construction of Turiamo and the maintenance and improvement of State highways. All these works are to be completed by December 19, 1933, as a national tribute to the Father of his Country, the Liberator Simón Bolívar, on the 150th anniversary of his birth (July 24, 1933), and to the 25th anniversary of the present régime.—E.C.S.

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## PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN BOLIVIA

The first serious steps towards organized scientific physical education in Bolivia were taken in 1909, when the Normal School at Sucre was established; but it was not until 1914, after the establishment of the General Bureau of Physical Education, that special teachers were appointed. The Bureau began its activities by publishing graded programs adapted especially for Bolivian schools and organizing a special teacher-training course. In 1928 the present director of the Bureau, Sr. Saturnino Rodrigo, was sent to Europe to study theory and practice. On his return he reorganized the Bureau, which was made a dependency of the Department of Education, and proposed the Institute of Advanced Physical Education, which was created in February 1931 (see *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for May 1931, p. 536, for a description of the functions of the Bureau and the institute). Uniform graded courses for the entire school curriculum, from kindergarten through the sixth year of the secondary school, have been issued. The program incorporates native games and dances, in order to combine physical education with social and racial pride in a manner suited to national needs.

Physical education is obligatory in all educational institutions; three hours of gymnastic exercises, three hours of games and recreation, at least one afternoon excursion, and sports in combination with games and excursions, are required every week. While there are no special playgrounds for children in Bolivia, in all the Departmental capitals there are parks with playground equipment used for an hour

every day by school groups under the direction of their professors, and open to everyone the rest of the time. Stadia have been constructed in the five principal cities, Oruro, Potosi, Sucre, Cochabamba and La Paz; that of La Paz now accommodates 35,000 spectators, and when entirely finished will accommodate 50,000.

Steps have been taken to establish a school athletic association, under whose auspices interscholastic games and gymnastic meets may be held. Among the popular sports in Bolivia are football, tennis, basket ball, and boxing; there is interest in swimming, in places where the sport may be practiced, and in handball and hiking, especially among the Boy Scouts. Every Department has an athletic association connected with the National Athletic Association of La Paz, which is a member of the International Federation.

The General Bureau of Physical Education not only directs the training of normal, healthy children in the schools, but also supervises the first school for weak children to be established in the Republic. It was founded by the National Antituberculosis League at Obrajes, a suburb of La Paz, situated about 1,000 feet lower in altitude. The school accepts children from 6 and 12 years old and has both boarding and day pupils, who stay four months at least.

The staff consists of a director specially trained for the work, a medical advisor, a specialist in health activities, elementary school teachers, and trained nurses. As the purpose of the institution is to improve the health as well as to develop the mental and physical powers of the patients, no child spends more than three hours daily in school work. Academic subjects are not as intensively studied as in the regular schools and an individual schedule is drawn up for each child; greater attention is given to open air classes, where emphasis is put on drawing, manual training, and singing.

During the first year and a half of its establishment 103 children, who were under the care of the school from 4 to 10 months, were discharged. The pronounced gain in weight, height, and general physical condition was gratifying evidence that the school was fulfilling the purposes for which it had been established.—B.N.

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## CENSUS OF UNEMPLOYED IN ARGENTINA

On July 8, 1932, the Argentine National Congress, by means of Law No. 11590, ordered that a census be made of the nation's unemployed. Shortly afterward the necessary regulations were issued by the Executive, and the investigation was begun under the immediate supervision of the National Bureau of Labor (*Departamento Nacional del Trabajo*).

On the blanks filled out by the unemployed, these were requested to furnish, besides the usual personal data, information as to how long they had been out of work and whether they had been unemployed before, and if so, whether this happened periodically. They were also asked to state the cause of their unemployment, and the number of days they were usually employed.

The work of the census was carried out directly through the Bureau of Labor in Buenos Aires, through the postal authorities in the rest of the nation, and in remote districts where no post offices exist, through the judiciary and police authorities.

When the census was completed, it was seen that it showed a total of 333,997 unemployed, of whom 315,473 were men and 18,524 women. Of those out of work, 67.41 percent were Argentineans. The next highest percentages were those of Italians, 12.43; Spaniards, 8.60; Czecho-Slovaks, 8.60; and Poles, 2.85. Some of the other nationalities represented, each of which furnished less than 1 percent of the total, were Germans, Bolivians, Brazilians, Chileans, French, British, Lithuanians, Paraguayans, Peruvians, Portuguese, Russians, Uruguayans and Jugo-Slavs. Distribution by occupation showed that most of the unemployed were casual laborers (77,748), agricultural and mine workers (70,840), building workers (39,463), commercial, bank, and insurance employees (29,197), and transport workers (23,366).

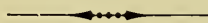
The detailed statistics of unemployment by occupation were as follows:

	Number of unemployed	Percent of total
Unspecified activities.....	7, 807	2. 34
Agriculture, stock raising, mining.....	70, 840	21. 20
Foodstuffs.....	3, 879	1. 16
Commerce, banks, offices, insurance.....	29, 197	8. 74
Clothing; barber and hairdressing shops.....	9, 605	2. 87
Construction.....	39, 463	11. 82
Electricity, gas, and water.....	3, 944	1. 18
Amusements.....	1, 033	. 34
Students and pensioners.....	4, 662	1. 39
Printing and allied trades.....	3, 235	. 97
Hotels, restaurants, bars, etc.....	5, 147	1. 54
Lumber.....	9, 041	2. 70
Metallurgy and allied trades.....	7, 192	2. 16
Baking, milling, etc.....	4, 169	1. 25
Day laborers.....	77, 748	23. 28
Chemical.....	1, 352	. 40
Domestic service.....	7, 849	2. 35
Government, provincial and municipal employees.....	10, 271	3. 08
Sanitary and health services.....	1, 850	. 55
Telephone, telegraph, and radio.....	1, 227	. 37
Maritime and fluvial transportation; port services.....	11, 120	3. 33
Air and land transportation.....	23, 366	6. 98
Total.....	333, 997	100. 00

The highest numbers of unemployed were shown by the Province of Buenos Aires (88,936), the Federal District of Buenos Aires (87,223), and the Province of Santa Fe (44,272).

Dr. José Figueroa, under whose direction the census was taken, remarks in the report presented at the time the final figures were submitted, that the census clearly indicates the degree of unemployment existing in the various branches of national activity, and that while it is not possible to affirm that the number of unemployed registered in the census corresponds exactly to the number of persons who are out of work, there does exist a very definite relationship between the statistics of unemployment in each branch of national activity and the degree of importance and development of each of said branches, as well as the density of population in each geographical area. In other words, the census shows accurately which are the national activities most affected by unemployment. The statistical value of the census would, of course be greatly increased if figures were available for the total number of persons employed, and if the general national census were of the same date as the unemployment census and had been carried out with rigorous accuracy. Lacking these statistics, it is impossible to make what would be most valuable comparisons, but even under such conditions the value of the census is great and the data therein contained highly useful.

The interpretation of the picture presented by the census varies, of course, with the personal views of the interpreter. The *Revista de Economía Argentina* for February 1930, states: "According to calculations made by Dr. Alejandro E. Bunge, in the middle of 1914 unemployment amounted to 321,000 persons (approximately 13.7 percent of the population). In 1917 the unemployed numbered 456,000, or 19.4 percent of the population, declining in subsequent years to 170,000 in 1920, representing 7.2 percent of the total. In the winter of 1926 the unemployed were estimated at 300,000, a figure which has been diminishing in later years."—A.C.



## RECOGNITION OF POLITICAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN IN URUGUAY

A law passed by the General Assembly of Uruguay and approved by the National Council of Administration on December 16, 1932, granted to women the right to vote and to hold office in national and municipal government. This was done in accordance with Article 10 of the Constitution of 1917, which reads: "Recognition of the right of women to vote and to hold office in national or municipal government, or in both at the same time, can be given only by a majority vote of two thirds of the total membership of each Chamber."



The law states that all electoral provisions now in force are applicable to women as well as to men, and therefore announces certain changes in the electoral laws, made necessary by the increase in the number of voters. The provisions of the law were drafted with a view to the participation of women in the election scheduled for 1934.—B.N.



LATIN AMERICAN  
WOMEN AT GENEVA.

At the 1932 Assembly of the League of Nations, two women delegates from Latin American republics took an active part in discussions concerning the nationality of married women. At the left is Señora Doña María de Pizano, delegate from Colombia, and at the right, Señora Doña Marta Vergara, Chilean delegate to the Assembly, leaving a meeting of the First Commission, of which they were members.

## NECROLOGY

*Armando Jaramillo Valderrama.*—The President of the Central Bank of Chile, Don Armando Jaramillo Valderrama, died at Santiago on December 29, 1932. He was born on May 10, 1886, the son of a wealthy landholding family long established in the Department of San Fernando, Province of Colchagua. Señor Jaramillo was educated at the Instituto Nacional and the University of Chile, where he received a law degree in 1909. Shortly after his graduation he was elected mayor of the commune of Nancagua, and in 1915 member of the Chamber of Deputies as a representative of San Fernando. This post, which he occupied for three consecutive terms, marked his entrance into national politics. He soon made rapid strides in his career. During the relatively short period of 10 years (1915–25) he held the portfolios of Interior, Foreign Affairs, Industry and Public Works, and Justice and Education, and was twice elected to the Senate of the Republic. A leader of the Liberal Party, he was a strong supporter of President Alessandri and was active in bringing about his recall to office in 1925. In 1929 he was appointed Intendente of the Province of Colchagua, a post held by one of his ancestors a century before. He served in that capacity until, 5 months before his death, the directors of the Central Bank elected him to the presidency of that institution.

*Juan Francisco Rodríguez Castillejo.*—Don Juan Francisco Rodríguez Castillejo, a prominent member of the Guatemalan bar and former Minister of Foreign Affairs and Justice of the Supreme Court, died at Guatemala City on January 9, 1933.

*Abelardo Rodríguez Urdaneta.*—On January 11, 1933, Don Abelardo Rodríguez Urdaneta, one of the best known Dominican painters and sculptors, died in his native city, Santo Domingo, at the age of 63. He was the founder and for 25 years director of the Academy of Fine Arts, established in 1908. His bust of Juan Pablo Duarte, the founder of the Dominican Republic, was selected by his Government for a place in the Hall of Heroes of the Pan American Union.

*Dr. Julio Corredor Latorre.*—The sudden death of Dr. Julio Corredor Latorre on January 22, 1933, at Mexico City has been profoundly felt in Bogotá and in Mexico, where he was accredited as Minister Plenipotentiary of Colombia.

*Gen. Eugenio Sánchez Agramonte.*—Gen. Eugenio Sánchez Agramonte, a distinguished Cuban physician, former Senator, Cabinet Minister, and leader in the War of Independence, died in Habana on March 9, 1933.

*Juan Gualberto Gómez.*—Juan Gualberto Gómez, Cuban patriot, died on March 5, 1933, at his home in Managua, near Habana, at the age of 78. "With his death a fragment of the soul of the past has left us;" thus Dr. Orestes Ferrara, Secretary of State, expressed the sentiment of the Cuban people at the loss of one of their most beloved revolutionary leaders. General Gómez was born on a sugar plantation in the Province of Matanzas on July 12, 1854; after completing his education in Paris he travelled as a teacher through the French Antilles, returning to Habana to edit the newspaper *La Discusión*. Subsequently he spent 10 years in Madrid, where he was the editor of *El Pueblo*, *El Progreso*, and *La Tribuna* and distinguished himself as an ardent advocate of the abolition of slavery. Early in his life he engaged in the campaigns for the independence of his country which Spain suppressed only to see new ones rise. Known as one of the greatest Cuban orators as well as a journalist of ability, he conducted an indefatigable campaign for freedom both at home and abroad. In 1895 he abandoned this phase of the struggle for action in the field, joining his friend Martí, the apostle of Cuban independence, in an insurrection which brought death to the latter and imprisonment in Morocco to Gómez. After his country was freed he became politically prominent, taking part in the Constitutional Assembly and serving in the national legislature. A few days before his death the Cuban Senate, in recognition of the many services which he had rendered his country, voted him a gift of \$10,000.

*Dr. Honorato Vázquez.*—Dr. Honorato Vázquez, the distinguished Ecuadorean jurist, legislator, diplomat, educator, and man of letters, died at Cuenca on January 26, 1933. In appreciation of the many services which he rendered his country during his long public career the National Government decreed 2 days of official mourning.

*Carlos de la Rosa.*—Don Carlos de la Rosa, Cuban Senator and leader of the Liberal Party, died at Cárdenas on February 10, 1933. Prior to the modification of the Cuban Constitution in 1928, he was Vice-President of the Republic.

*Dr. Paulo de Frontin.*—On February 15, 1933, Brazil lost one of her illustrious sons by the death of Dr. André Paulo Gustavo de Frontin, an eminent engineer, educator, humanitarian, and statesman. For over half a century his dynamic personality, generous public spirit, and forceful character made him an outstanding figure.

He was born in Rio de Janeiro on September 17, 1860. At the age of 16 he graduated from the Polytechnicum of Rio de Janeiro as civil engineer and geographer with an additional degree in physics and mathematics, and a year later (1877) as mining engineer. In 1880 he was appointed chief resident engineer of the França Reservoir, Borough of Santa Thereza, Rio de Janeiro, and subsequently chief engineer of the new water works of the city of Rio de Janeiro.

The experience which he had acquired in water-supply work enabled him to carry out the difficult task of providing water for Assuruá, in the district of Chique-Chique, State of Bahia, and stood him in good stead when in 1899 he accomplished the feat of bringing water to the city of Rio de Janeiro, then suffering from a serious drought, within 6 days. This is commonly considered the most notable accomplishment of his professional career.

Twice appointed director of the Central Railroad of Brazil, he effected considerable and important improvements such as the duplication of mountain tunnels to provide double-track facilities and the extension of the lines. He was closely associated with improvements in his native city, serving in 1896 as member of the sanitation commission for the Federal capital and in 1904 as chief of the commission which, during the administration of President Rodrigues Alves, constructed the modern Avenida Rio Branco, the main downtown business artery of Rio de Janeiro.

He represented the Federal District in the Senate in 1917, 1918 (resigning to become mayor of Rio), and 1920, and in the Chamber of Deputies in 1919. For many years he was president of the Engineering Club and member of numerous other scientific societies. The impressive homage paid him by the people and the Government of Brazil on his death are an eloquent testimony of the esteem in which he was generally held.







ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA

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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



GENERAL FRANCISCO DE MIRANDA  
"A FLAMING SON OF LIBERTY"

JUNE

1933

MEXICO NICARAGUA PANAMA GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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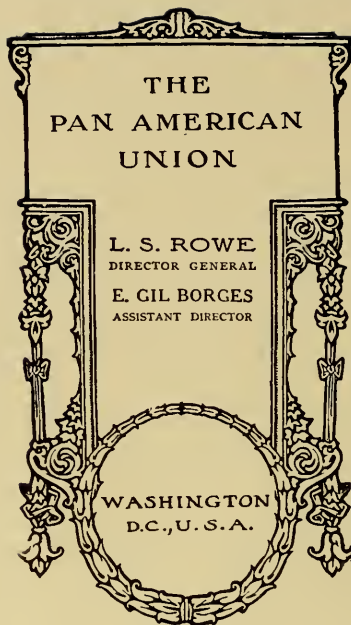
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From the "Archivo del General Miranda"

THE PORTRAIT OF MIRANDA IN THE NATIONAL MUSEUM AT VERSAILLES.

Miranda is here seen in the uniform of a general of the French Revolution. It was in 1792, at the instance of the revolutionary government, that Miranda accepted a commission in the Army of the North under Dumouriez. His operations just before the Battle of Valmy paved the way for that decisive victory. Later in the year, in the absence of Dumouriez, he was temporarily commander in chief of the Army.



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## FRANCISCO DE MIRANDA

By L. S. ROWE, Ph.D., LL.D.

*Director General of the Pan American Union*

ON the occasion of the celebration of Pan American Day, April 12, 1933, His Excellency Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya, Minister of Venezuela, presented to the Pan American Union a bust of the Precursor of Spanish American Independence, Gen. Francisco de Miranda, in the name of the people and the Government of his country. Gathered in this issue of the BULLETIN will be found the addresses delivered on that day as well as the tributes which distinguished writers pay to this patriot whose life was nobly consecrated to the service of liberty and American ideals.

The Pan American Union is honored in having the opportunity to render this homage to the memory of a man who through the amplitude of his mind and the energy of his actions had a profound influence on the emancipation of the Spanish colonies in South America, as well as on their organization into free democracies and their international union into a society of states which he was one of the first to orient toward peace through justice, law, and fraternity.

As a philosopher, Miranda helped to emancipate the spirit of the nations; as a statesman, he laid the bases for the structure of the new republics; as a soldier, he gave his military talent, his blood, and finally his life, to the cause of liberty, which he espoused in Europe and in America wherever war was being waged for freedom. In recognition of his services to liberty in Europe a grateful nation has inscribed his name on the *Arc de Triomphe* in Paris and a statue has been erected on the battlefield of Valmy. His bust in the hall of fame of the Pan American Union perpetuates his memory and the gratitude of America for his services to liberty in the New World.



## PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S ADDRESS ON PAN AMERICAN DAY

"I REJOICE in this opportunity to participate in the celebration of 'Pan American Day' and to extend on behalf of the people of the United States a fraternal greeting to our sister American Republics. The celebration of 'Pan American Day' in this building, dedicated to international goodwill and cooperation, exemplifies a unity of thought and purpose among the peoples of this hemisphere. It is a manifestation of the common ideal of mutual helpfulness, sympathetic understanding, and spiritual solidarity.

"There is inspiration in the thought that on this day the attention of the citizens of the twenty-one Republics of America is focused on the common ties—historical, cultural, economic, and social—which bind them to one another. Common ideals and a community of interest, together with a spirit of cooperation, have led to the realization that the well-being of one nation depends in large measure upon the well-being of its neighbors. It is upon these foundations that Pan Americanism has been built."

These were the opening remarks of the President of the United States in his address delivered at the special session of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on the occasion of the third annual celebration of Pan American Day in Washington. Because of the Easter holidays, the day was observed on April 12 instead of April 14, the date fixed three years ago by proclamation of the Chiefs of State of all the American Republics. The session was held in the stately Governing Board room of the Pan American Union and attended by the Ambassadors and Ministers of Latin America and the Secretary of State of the United States, who compose the Board. The presidential address was broadcast throughout the Americas, where Mr. Roosevelt's first official utterance on inter-American relations since entering the White House was eagerly awaited. The President continued:

"This celebration commemorates a movement based upon the policy of fraternal cooperation. In my inaugural address I stated that I would 'dedicate this Nation to the policy of the good neighbor—the neighbor who resolutely respects himself, and, because he does so, respects the rights of others—the neighbor who respects his obligations and respects the sanctity of his agreements in and with a world of neighbors.' Never before has the significance of the words 'good neighbor' been so manifest in international relations. Never have the

need and benefit of neighborly cooperation in every form of human activity been so evident as they are today.

"Friendship among nations, as among individuals, calls for constructive efforts to muster the forces of humanity in order that an atmosphere of close understanding and cooperation may be cultivated. It involves mutual obligations and responsibilities, for it is only by sympathetic respect for the rights of others and a scrupulous fulfillment of the corresponding obligations by each member of the community that a true fraternity can be maintained.

"The essential qualities of a true Pan Americanism must be the same as those which constitute a good neighbor, namely, mutual understanding, and through such understanding, a sympathetic appreciation of the other's point of view. It is only in this manner that we can hope to build up a system of which confidence, friendship, and good-will are the cornerstones.

"In this spirit the people of every Republic on our Continent are coming to a deep understanding of the fact that the Monroe Doctrine, of which so much has been written and spoken for more than a century, was and is directed at the maintenance of independence by the peoples of the continent. It was aimed and is aimed against the acquisition in any manner of the control of additional territory in this hemisphere by any non-American power.

"Hand in hand with this Pan-American doctrine of continental self-defense, the peoples of the American Republics understand more clearly, with the passing years, that the independence of each Republic must recognize the independence of every other Republic. Each one of us must grow by an advancement of civilization and social well-being and not by the acquisition of territory at the expense of any neighbor.

"In this spirit of mutual understanding and of cooperation on this Continent you and I cannot fail to be disturbed by any armed strife between neighbors. I do not hesitate to say to you, the distinguished members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, that I regard existing conflicts between four of our sister Republics as a backward step.

"Your Americanism and mine must be a structure built of confidence, cemented by a sympathy which recognizes only equality and fraternity. It finds its source and being in the hearts of men and dwells in the temple of the intellect.

"We all of us have peculiar problems, and, to speak frankly, the interest of our own citizens must, in each instance, come first. But it is equally true that it is of vital importance to every nation of this Continent that the American Governments, individually, take, without further delay, such action as may be possible to abolish all un-

necessary and artificial barriers and restrictions which now hamper the healthy flow of trade between the peoples of the American Republics.

"I am glad to deliver this message to you, Gentlemen of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, for I look upon the Union as the outward expression of the spiritual unity of the Americas. It is to this unity which must be courageous and vital in its elements that humanity must look for one of the great stabilizing influences in world affairs.

"In closing, may I refer to the ceremony which is to take place a little later in the morning at which the Government of Venezuela will present to the Pan American Union the bust of a great American leader and patriot, Francisco de Miranda. I join with you in this tribute."

At the conclusion of the President's address, which was conveyed by loudspeaker to a large and enthusiastic audience in the Hall of the Americas, he requested to be introduced to each of the members of the Governing Board, departing a few minutes later accompanied by the applause of the throng gathered in front of the Pan American Union building.



Photograph by International News Photo Service

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT LEAVING THE PAN AMERICAN UNION ON PAN AMERICAN DAY.

## VENEZUELA PRESENTS A BUST OF MIRANDA TO THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

GENERAL Francisco de Miranda, who knew the capitals and men of many lands, may well have walked southward from the White House when he visited Washington in 1805 and have passed the site where today stands the building of the Pan American Union. No consoling gift of prescience told him that more than a century later his name would be perpetuated there as in other shrines of American liberty, but it is indeed fitting that a presentment of a hero who looked forward and toiled with faith and hope for the freedom of his country and other American colonies should receive an honored place in the temple of the American republics.

A bust of Miranda, the gift of the people and the Government of Venezuela, was presented to the Pan American Union at the ceremonies marking the third observance of Pan American Day, on April 12, 1933. The Secretary of State, Hon. Cordell Hull, presided as Chairman of the Governing Board. The presentation address was delivered by His Excellency Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya, Minister of Venezuela, in the presence of the Latin American diplomatic corps, other distinguished guests, and representatives of public and private high schools and of colleges and universities in Washington. This event took place in the Hall of the Americas immediately following the address of President Roosevelt delivered at a special session of the Governing Board, as described in the preceding article.

In presenting on behalf of his Government the marble bust of this Venezuelan hero Dr. Arcaya briefly reviewed as follows the life and contributions of Miranda to the cause of Spanish American independence:

In the name of Gen. Juan Vicente Gómez, President of the United States of Venezuela, I have the honor of presenting to the Pan American Union the bust of Gen. Francisco de Miranda which will be shortly unveiled. It is the gift of the people and the Government of Venezuela.

It is fitting, gentlemen, that we should honor in this temple of the Americas the memory of the illustrious Precursor of Pan Americanism, who spread throughout Spanish America the idea of independence, who started the armed conflict to achieve it, and who died a martyr to the noble cause which he had championed.





THE MINISTER OF VENEZUELA AND THE BUST OF MIRANDA.

In the name of the Government and people of Venezuela, Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya, Minister of Venezuela, presented this bust, the work of the American artist Rudolph Evans, to the Pan American Union on April 12, 1933. In his presentation address, Dr. Arcaya said: "It is fitting that we should honor in this temple of the Americas the memory of the illustrious Precursor of Pan Americanism, who spread throughout Spanish America the idea of independence, who started the armed conflict to achieve it, and who died a martyr to the noble cause which he had championed."

While Miranda was but a youth still in the military service of Spain, it fell to his lot to contribute, albeit slightly, to the independence of the United States by fighting against the British in the war which brought liberty to this great nation. Later, after his connection with Spain had been severed, he came to this country and talked with Washington, Hamilton, and other American statesmen. His spirit was so stimulated by the sight of a free, sovereign, and therefore happy nation that he conceived the idea, which he never abandoned, that Spanish America also should be free, sovereign, and happy.

He traveled in the Old World; he cultivated his intelligent mind; he made useful acquaintances throughout Europe; he fought brilliantly in the armies of the French Republic, and rose to the rank of Commander in Chief; he besieged and took Antwerp. A grateful France later graved his name on the massive Arc de Triomphe erected in honor of the warriors who had defended the country.

But everything that Miranda undertook was planned to further the prime purpose he pursued: the independence of Spanish America. For this he made a successful effort to distinguish himself before the world. For this he sought the friendship of the Empress of Russia; served France; and was ready to serve England, where he later made his headquarters.

Miranda directed all the conspiracies for independence that were plotted in the American colonies of Spain. From Mexico to La Plata his influence was felt. His active propaganda knew no respite. Finally he considered the people were ready, and decided to launch the war of emancipation.

He came to the United States, and here organized an expedition made up, for the most part, of enthusiastic American citizens. In 1806 he sailed for the shores of Venezuela. He failed in his first attempt to disembark at Ocumare, but a few months later succeeded in landing at the port of La Vela. He occupied the city of Coro and there issued, on August 2, the memorable proclamation "To the nations of the American Continent", urging them "to regain their rights as citizens of Colombian America." It was his idea, which he had already expounded, that Spanish America should be called Colombia and form a single great nation, from Cape Horn to the 45th parallel, including Cuba, but excepting Brazil in the south and the regions east of the Mississippi in the north.

Essentially Pan American was the first step toward the winning of independence in Spanish America. Miranda addressed himself to all the colonies, and the sons of the United States who accompanied him shared in glory and danger. Already some of those who had left New York under his orders had been taken prisoners at Ocumare and had paid with their lives for their love of liberty.

Miranda carried the flag which he had designed to symbolize the independence of Spanish America. It was of three colors, yellow,

blue, and red, and he ordered that it should be flown "from the highest and most conspicuous part of the churches." It was from the tower of the old cathedral of Coro that it waved over the continent for the first time.

Yet Miranda did not find in Venezuela the welcome which he had expected. The seed of the new ideas had not yet germinated, and he was forced to retire. His banner was burned by the executioner in the main square of Caracas. But Miranda did not lose faith in final victory. He went to London to make new plans.

Unexpected events then took place. The Emperor of France tried to make his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, the king of Spain, but the Spanish people would have none of him, and the colonies were aroused. Venezuela proclaimed its autonomy on April 19, 1810, and Miranda returned to Caracas after more than 39 years of absence from his native city.

The idea of absolute independence gained ground immediately upon his arrival. A Congress was convoked, with Miranda one of the deputies. His burning words, his majestic mien, the reputation which he enjoyed, all gave the utmost weight to his proposal—to proclaim national independence at once. The patriots of Caracas were also clamoring for it; and therefore Congress declared, on that unforgettable July 5, 1811, "in the name of Almighty God and with the desire and authority of the virtuous people of Venezuela, its provinces are and ought to be from this day henceforward, in fact and in law, free, sovereign, and independent states."

When Miranda signed that historic document his life-long ideal was realized. That was the most deeply joyous day of his life, the day which Venezuela recalls with greatest enthusiasm.

But later a royalist reaction occurred, for the truth is that the Spanish regime was not wholly abhorrent. The majority of the patriots wanted independence more as a matter of principle than because of any blind hatred for Spain, a feeling which very few cherished. On the contrary, a considerable number of Venezuelans loved the mother country, and these were instrumental in bringing about a strong and spirited counter-revolution. Miranda had been appointed dictator. The royalist wave engulfed him, and with a fatal lack of understanding the patriots themselves doubted his integrity. They blamed him for the failure of the Republic; when that fell, Miranda was taken prisoner by the Spaniards, on July 31, 1812.

Then began his *via dolorosa*. Miranda was transferred from one prison to another, ending in the Carraca at Cadiz, Spain. He was consistent to the day of his death; he never sought pardon, but he did demand the fulfillment of the terms of surrender according to which he had laid down his arms.

In a famous picture a great Venezuelan painter, Arturo Michelena, has portrayed Miranda in the Carraca.<sup>1</sup> There he is seen in his narrow

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<sup>1</sup> See p. 450.





Photograph by International News Photo Service

#### UNVEILING OF THE BUST OF MIRANDA.

Señorita Isabel Arcaya, the daughter of the Minister of Venezuela in the United States, unveiled the bust of Miranda in the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union, in the presence of members of the Governing Board and a distinguished gathering.

cell, half lying on a miserable pallet. Sickness of soul is evident in his face, but not despair. On the contrary, his countenance radiates hope for the final redemption of America, just as hope for their own eventual redemption illuminates the souls in Purgatory in another famous painting by a second great Venezuelan artist, Cristóbal Rojas. Miranda was comforted, indeed, by his own martyrdom, which he knew would clear his name and prove how unfounded were the suspicions of Venezuelan patriots in 1812. He was not a traitor, but a victim. His chains protected him; perhaps he loved them. The expression of the prisoner is thoughtful, as if he were seeing the free America of the future. He had played to the end the role which fate had assigned to him in the winning of independence. He had sown a love of liberty which had already become a rooted passion in strong and generous hearts. Venezuela and New Granada had enjoyed independence and were bestirring themselves to recover it; the provinces of the Río de La Plata had kept it; Mexico was fighting for it. Nothing could hold back the movement, which Miranda had begun, to free the continent. Bolívar was to finish the great undertaking.

The prisoner died July 14, 1816. In his death throes perhaps he imagined his gloomy prison illumined with the bright colors of his flag, that banner of American independence which Venezuela had



adopted in 1811 and which was lowered at San Mateo in 1812. For even into the depths of Miranda's prison must have penetrated the news that Bolívar had picked up the fallen ensign and raised it again in 1813. The dying man knew that it had later received, at the same town of San Mateo, the supreme consecration of a heroic sacrifice: that of Ricaurte who, instead of striking the flag and surrendering to the enemy the powder magazine whose defense Bolívar had entrusted to him, chose to blow up the stores of ammunition and perish in the great explosion whose echoes will never cease to resound in America.

Perhaps in his last moments Miranda caught a glimpse of the future, and saw the succession of battles which won the liberty of the continent and in which his flag, carried by Bolívar or his generals, waved triumphant: San Félix, Boyacá, Carabobo, Pichincha, Junín, and Ayacucho. . . . It flew from the churches where Miranda had ordered it raised, to the highest peaks of the Andes where Bolívar planted it, because it was the banner of Great Colombia.

When that glorious nation created by Bolívar ceased to be, we Ecuadoreans, citizens of New Granada, and Venezuelans apportioned our territory and divided our funds between us, but the heritage of our common glory, symbolized in the tricolor banner, we left intact. These colors, in different combinations, today make up the flags of Venezuela, of Colombia, and of Ecuador which, together with all the others of free America, you see before you, unfurled in homage to the memory of Miranda. Ah! He was no idle dreamer. He saw far because his vision was lofty—he looked ahead from the heights of his ardent patriotism.

Mr. Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union:

This is the bust of General Francisco de Miranda. Pray accept it.

The audience rose when to the strains of the Venezuelan national anthem Señorita Isabel Arcaya, daughter of the Venezuelan Minister, proceeded to unveil the beautiful marble bust—the work of the American sculptor Rudolph Evans. Everyone remained standing while the United States Army Band played the national anthems of all the American Republics and twenty-one young girls from the National Cathedral School of Washington, each carrying the flag of one of the Republics, grouped themselves around the statue in a symbolic tribute to Miranda, the Precursor of Spanish-American independence.

The Hon. Cordell Hull then accepted the gift of the Venezuelan Government on behalf of the Pan American Union. He said:

It is with great pleasure that I accept on behalf of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union the generous gift of the Venezuelan Government. We all join, Mr. Minister, in your eloquent tribute to this leader in the great epic of emancipation. Miranda's abiding

faith in the high destiny of the nations of this Continent and his unswerving devotion to the ideals of liberty must ever remain an inspiration to the youth of America.

Few men in the history of this Continent have shown such determination, such singleness of purpose, and such untiring zeal in the face of almost overwhelming discouragements.

With the zeal and enthusiasm of an apostle he struggled unremittently for the freedom of the Spanish-American colonies and although he suffered many disappointments his example was a constant inspiration to his fellow men.

I beg of you, Mr. Minister, to express to your Government the deep appreciation of the Pan American Union for this generous gift and to assure the people of Venezuela that their great fellow countryman will ever occupy an honored place within this building, which is dedicated to the same ideals of liberty and fraternity for which Miranda struggled.

His Excellency Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala and Vice Chairman of the Governing Board, also paid homage to the Venezuelan hero in the following words:

The natural course of events brings us together, on this Pan American Day, to honor the memory of an American Liberator from the South, not long after we commemorated the second centenary of George Washington. These celebrations are not mere academic tournaments or theatrical spectacles. They are solemn acts of great educational value, that teach the men of today what the men of yesterday succeeded in doing for the happiness and welfare of humanity.

General Miranda, whose bust is being added today to those of other illustrious men in the gallery of the Pan American Union, is an admirable example of valor, intelligence, and patriotism. A son of one of the Spanish colonies of America, he dreamed of the independence of the whole Continent and the union of its different portions into one, sole, great and prosperous entity, free from the conflicts, prejudices and ambitions of the Old World. During his time, liberty waged decisive battles against the old regime in England, France, and the English colonies of North America. Miranda participated actively in those struggles. He knew and admired Washington and Hamilton. He was honored with the friendship of Pitt in England, and in France he led the revolutionary forces that defended the Republic against the monarchical powers of Europe. But his destiny was in America. He realized, before anyone else, that the happiness of Spanish America lay in her liberty: that it was an injustice for so many million people to continue living in subjection to the Government of a European Nation, from which they were separated by an ocean, and which was incapable of administering to the necessities of so vast a colonial empire.

With a clear vision of the future, Miranda foresaw a union of the Spanish colonies of the South with the English colonies of the North, through the connecting bonds of commerce and republican institutions. For this reason, Miranda should be considered as the true precursor of Pan Americanism. Bolívar took effective steps towards a union of the countries of America, after independence was consummated; but Miranda, statesman, philosopher, and patriot, had been enunciating the idea ever since the beginning of the century, when South Americans were still slumbering under the colonial domination of Spain. Miranda went still further and conceived the idea of joining the two oceans by means of opening a canal through Panama, and he predicted that there would be the future center of world commerce and navigation.

Miranda did not have the good fortune to see his dream realized in the liberation of Spanish America; his various attempts to destroy Spanish power were unfruitful in immediate results, although they were the opening wedge for the future victories of liberty. After many sufferings, this American hero died obscurely in a Spanish prison in 1816; but at that time, the war of independence was general throughout America and the triumph of democracy was assured in the whole Continent.

We have sufficient reason, then, to render this homage to the illustrious Francisco de Miranda. His statue is in its proper place on the soil of the United States, because he lived and fought here, he witnessed the birth of liberty and comprehended that the countries of Spanish America should also be free, like their brothers of the North. His deeds, like those of Washington and Bolívar, show the men of today and point out to the men of tomorrow that the destiny of the countries of America cannot be changed: that they were made for liberty and for union, and to be respected by the other countries of the earth.

On behalf of the students of the schools and colleges of the District of Columbia Señor Rogelio Alfaro of Western High School then made the following remarks on the life and achievements of Miranda:

On this occasion of the unveiling of the bust of General Francisco de Miranda it is my privilege, as the representative of the schools in the city of Washington, to pay tribute to the memory of the great Venezuelan patriot. The story of his romantic life and the dramatic incidents with which it was filled; of his service in the army of Spain; of his extended travels through Europe soliciting aid for the liberation of South America, and of his attempts in Venezuela to achieve his plans, is fascinating and stirring. Of particular interest to Americans are his connections with the United States, the part that various Americans played in his life, and the visits he paid to this country. It was in the year 1783 that he first came to the United States, shortly



after leaving the Spanish Army. Previously, while in the army, he had been in Florida and fought against the British at the siege of Pensacola. It was then, and while in the city of Philadelphia, that we first hear of his designs for the liberation of Spanish America. Miranda met many persons, some of eminence, at this time. He probably met General Washington. In Alexander Hamilton, Stephen Sayre, Rufus King, and Thomas Paine, the Venezuelan soldier found steadfast and helpful friends. Again in 1806, after visiting nearly every country in Europe and having fought in the French Revolution, he returned to this country. During this time he had tried for years, laying down plan after plan for the invasion of South America by military forces, to enlist the aid of the British Government, but without avail. In the United States he was able to secure backing for an expedition which he led himself, but which was unsuccessful. Undaunted, Miranda returned to Europe and continued working for the goal which he had made his ideal, a free South America.

We cannot but admire the fortitude of Miranda's character when we see how, despite the many setbacks he suffered in his fight for South American independence, he persevered in his purpose and although he was prevented by imprisonment and finally by death from realizing his desires himself, others carried on his work and through their efforts were born the nations of South America, all free republics, each one a monument to Miranda.

To sum up his life it is enough to repeat the historian Michelet's conclusion, "He was born unfortunate." This phrase implies the whole of the adverse fate which accompanied him during his entire life and still hangs like a cloud over his tomb. Some have classified him as an adventurer. Military faults and errors which he never committed have been imputed to him. Old prejudices, unjust judgments and unfounded criticisms still endure to dim his fame. But the answer to this black ingratitude is his name engraved upon the eternal granite of the *Arc de l'Etoile* in Paris and the title of "Precursor of American Independence" which has been adjudged him by posterity.

The following radiogram from the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela was then read by the Secretary of State:

His Excellency the CHAIRMAN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, Washington.

On the date designated this year for the observance of Pan American Day I take pleasure in presenting to the Governing Board my best wishes for the peace of America, for the strengthening of the bonds of union between the American Republics, for their prosperity, and for the personal welfare of their respective Chiefs of State.

(Signed) P. ITRIAGO CHACÍN,  
Minister of Foreign Affairs.



His Excellency Dr. Jacobo Varela, Minister of Uruguay, read the following message received from his Government:

LEGATION OF URUGUAY, Washington.

Please convey to the Pan American Union the cordial greetings of Uruguay on Pan American Day. On this occasion we reiterate our hope that the forthcoming conference <sup>1</sup> will find a way to solve the economic and financial problems confronting these continents as well as adequate means for the consecration of peace and brotherhood among the American nations. As in previous years the public schools are celebrating Pan American Day.

(Signed) ALBERTO MAÑE,  
*Minister of Foreign Affairs.*

To conclude the ceremony the students of the schools represented at the exercises deposited a floral tribute before the bust of the hero, the yellow, red, and blue flowers forming the colors of Venezuela first flown by Miranda from the mast of the *Leander* which sailed from New York in 1806 on his ill-fated expedition in the cause of his country's independence.

<sup>1</sup> The Seventh International Conference of American States to meet in Montevideo, Uruguay, December 1933.



HOMAGE TO MIRANDA AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.

A group of students from the National Cathedral School of Washington represented the twenty-one American republics at the unveiling of the bust of Miranda on April 12, 1933.

# THE UNSWERVING IDEAL OF FRANCISCO DE MIRANDA

By ORESTES FERRARA

*Secretary of State of Cuba*

**I**F in some future time, even more remote than our own from the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth, a historian should wish to write about Francisco de Miranda and, possessing only a general knowledge of the great deeds that agitated the Americas and especially Europe during the transition period which engendered the New Age, should propose to sketch as an explanatory background for his figure the environment in which Miranda moved, his research would indeed be arduous, for he would be unable to pass over a single country comprised in the civilized world of that period, or a single notable man of that epoch.

There are, unquestionably, historical personages more important than Francisco de Miranda because of the vigor of their efforts, their success, and the esteem in which they were held by their contemporaries. On this very continent, from Bolívar to Martí, all the great apostles of national independence surpassed him in the direct and unremitting labor which they devoted to creating countries for the colonials without a country. But Miranda alone, of all Americans—although San Martín might be a second—was a universal actor in the great drama of human renaissance which took place on the world stage of his time. And Miranda alone was intimate with the great figures of his era, and took part in memorable events on both the eastern and western shores of the Atlantic. If his life is studied by periods, each period being defined by the limited space of a nation or by a brief lapse of time, it can only be described by studying him together with the principal personality of that time or place. During his stay in Russia, the name of Catherine the Great was linked with his; in England, we find that of Pitt; in France, then the fateful arena, we have to join successively to Miranda's the names of Pétion, Brissot and Dumouriez and, later, of Napoleon and Fouché.

On the western shores of the Atlantic his activities were no less brilliant. He was the leader of all the early rebels of Latin America, for around him rallied Chileans and Cubans and representatives of the countries between these two geographic extremes. In the United States, he knew Washington and Hamilton, Knox and Monroe, in fact all the civil and military leaders, and he kept the close personal

friendship of many of them for long years and despite intervening distance.

But when the narrator gives way to the critic, the figure of Miranda becomes even greater and more disconcerting. If it is strange and remarkable that, without other credentials than his own talent, he never ceased to play a chief role on the international stage, it is even more incomprehensible and surprising that he was never overcome by his own immediate success, that he never surrendered himself, as so often happened in the case of others, to his most recent triumph, abandoning his earliest ideal.

The critic who even today stops to study this great American asks himself in surprise why Miranda did not swerve from the main purpose of his life and let himself be led astray by the flattery of the Russian Court, or why, amid the stimulating activity of the French Revolution, he did not attach himself to the triumphal chariot of Napoleon when the latter began his glorious career, or why he did not give himself to the waxing fortunes of English politics, at whose service he had put himself solely in the interest of his cause. Those on whom destiny has not smiled do not understand how easy it is to change goals halfway along the road.

The greatest glory of Miranda lies in his fixed resolve to continue as the champion of Latin American independence; in his resistance to all flattery of fortune; in his understanding of his true historical role; in his unquenchable faith in his ideal. This refusal to rest on his laurels, or to let favorable events influence him to follow the line of personal success, deserves to be recorded and emphasized, because it is the outstanding characteristic of his lofty character.

If we leave out of account European courts and the attractions of democracy in the United States, the most puzzling question in this field of historical hypothesis is why Miranda did not completely identify himself with France after the political and psychological transformation of the French people. For he was a soldier who was, although only for a brief period, commander in chief of the most powerful army of the Revolution, a soldier who also had facility of expression, persuasive speech, charm in the salon, courage on the battlefield, and great political understanding. He was, moreover, a politician whose varied activities and many talents seemed the creation of a prodigious genius aware of the sentiments and passions, the greatness and failings, the glories and the crimes of the Great Revolution, the light-hearted Directory, and the conquering Empire. Yet notwithstanding these abilities and opportunities of Miranda's, all that absorbing and dazzling world was but an incident in his existence as he followed his own path in pursuit of his deep-seated aspiration—American liberty.

Between Miranda and the Revolution there was evidently a psychological bond. It was to the classic cultures that Miranda owed his ideas of liberty. It is very difficult for us to understand and appreciate properly our debt to the Greeks and the Romans; nations, like men, tend to forget their great benefactors. But it cannot be doubted that if a geological cataclysm had kept from us "the glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome" our civilization would not be what it is today. Miranda, like many another, drew from the classics rather than from immediate circumstances his love for free institutions. In Turkey he learned an aphorism which pleased him: "No nation that has always been enslaved ever tried to attain liberty, for it is ignorant of the benefits of freedom." His acceptance of this principle shows him to have believed that a society which is the culmination of slow adaptation destroys itself only when it envisions a nobler form.

The French Revolution, it may be said, was eminently classic in its manifestations, for Greece and Rome were the constant exemplars to which it turned during its preparation and development. As in the field of art the Renaissance (that flowering of esthetic ideas quickened in the contemplative period of the Middle Ages) took a Greco-Roman form, so in the field of politics the needs of the moment, the new spirit of social unity, and conflicting economic interests all overflowed into fertile intellectual fields already tilled by the ancients.

The world returned to the grandeur of Greece and Rome with the changes that time and place introduce into the acts of men: in art the new period was called the Renaissance; in politics, the French Revolution. Machiavelli's penetrating vision had foreseen such an event when he said that there was no reason for men to imitate the art but not the political institutions of the ancients.

Miranda had not known the illegal, or at least excessive, taxes of the French Court, or the hungry years that preceded the Revolution, or the difficulties of industrial production, or the excesses of the governing class. But he knew more than all that—he knew that in the distant past men had had greater dignity and a keener sense of honor and, having deeper self-respect, had done deeds of inimitable prowess. The Revolution in its turn, following the same thought, asserted as its foundation the rights of man.

Full proof of Miranda's profound understanding of the Revolution is to be found in what might be called his triumphal scene before the Revolutionary Tribunal, after the hecatomb in the prisons of Paris. Taken prisoner after the defection of Dumouriez, confined under the accusation of treason, Miranda was brought before this Revolutionary Tribunal, still of unhappy memory—in our opinion no more unjust than tribunals all through ages, although, because of its adaptation to circumstances, it was terribly cruel. The condemnation to the





guillotine of a general defeated in battle while under the orders of a commander who had gone over to the enemy just when victory was absolutely necessary for the very existence of those sitting in judgment would be not so much a consequence of the trial as an inevitable corollary of the accusation. Revolutions do not examine intent, because when danger is grave, a damaging fact suffices to condemn.

Yet Miranda was acquitted and his acquittal evoked a great burst of popular enthusiasm. The people of Paris, in this act of justice, reciprocated Miranda's love for the Republic, the love which had found expression in the noble phrase which he hurled in the face of Dumouriez when the latter compared him with that Labienus who at the outbreak of civil war abandoned Caesar, his chief: "Labienus or Cato, I shall always be found on the side of the Republic."

This identification of himself with the Republic would have given him much greater personal success than he enjoyed, if he had been able to forget his native America. But this was not in the order of things. For him, labor for France was a means, not an end. Brissot wished to send him to Santo Domingo with a strong expedition; Miranda did not accept because he thought the enterprise inadequate. He dreamed of an operation of greater scope on his native continent. An anonymous correspondent<sup>1</sup> who wrote him a letter dated October 16, 1800, gives the true explanation of the complex situation that prevented Miranda from allying himself definitely with a country and a cause which he had made intimately his own, yet which did not keep him from reaping the moral and material benefits of the harmony which existed between circumstances and the man: "In my opinion, it is high time to close the *European Volume* and to begin the *American Volume*." In other words, his European activities should not absorb his whole life, only part of it. This was a mistake from the standpoint of personal success, but a noble decision from the standpoint of patriotism.

But if the Revolution, a new Circe which transformed into beasts all those who loved her, and the Directory, under the control of the vain and corrupt Barras, failed to win the whole-hearted allegiance of the fiery Venezuelan, it is more difficult to understand why the Napoleonic regime did not attract him.

Miranda was a republican, but a moderate. In France his first friends were Girondists. His draft constitution for almost all Latin America, given to Pitt early in 1798, provides for an Inca, or Emperor, an Upper House of life members, and a Popular House. Moreover, although only during his extensive travels had Miranda been a courtier, he had never been dazzled by great ceremonies nor had he felt that his presence at them was spiritual treason; by his success at

<sup>1</sup> According to Parra-Pérez (p. 461), Col. W. S. Smith—EDITOR.

various courts it may be considered that he was very much at home there.

The democratic despotism which Napoleon introduced, the continual glory with which he fed the restless French spirit of that epoch, the order which he reestablished, the new public administration with its modern efficiency, the splendor of the state functions which once more returned to fashion, all were in accord with the ideas and taste of Francisco de Miranda, and constituted a powerful means for distracting from the confused mirage of American independence the attention of any patriot more pliant and less decisive of will. This was especially true because, it must be confessed, the independence of Latin America was, at the end of the eighteenth century, an achievement which could not logically be thought of as immediate; it may be stated in the light of later events that without the eclipse of the Bourbons in Spain and, generally speaking, without the Napoleonic Wars at the beginning of the following century, any attempt at emancipation would have encountered greater difficulties with Spain as well as numberless obstacles in international politics. Miranda himself, going from court to court and from government to government in search of aid, betrayed his doubts and fears for the success of any isolated efforts by the oppressed peoples; it was in just such a conflict that he was later to play an ill-starred role. But Miranda's spirit of patriotic duty was unquenchable and his confidence in himself absolute.

A detailed study of the relations between Miranda and Napoleon will probably never be made because of lack of complete data. The facts which have come down to us show that the two great men were not congenial. They did not understand one another and perhaps, given their different psychological points of view, never could have understood each other. To be sure, the reason why Miranda did not identify himself with the Consulate was his ideal for America; but it is impossible not to examine critically the difference in temperament between these two personalities.

The fame of Miranda had preceded that of the future Emperor. When he met Napoleon for the first time, he, like others of that period, could not understand that here was a star of the first magnitude. In general, great men at the beginning of their careers appear either vain or taciturn, frivolous or pedantic, eccentric and mad, or suspicious and selfish. Miranda was already famous; some one had dubbed him "the most intriguing man in Europe", while others believed him to be a restless agitator; to everyone he was wrapped in deep mystery because of his birth in a distant and unknown land, his travels, and his suspected relations with the Governments of England and Russia. It was by chance, in a salon frequented by literary figures, artists, and politicians, that Miranda met Napoleon



for the first time. Miranda himself described the encounter years afterwards with apparent sincerity: "Bonaparte was then unknown, so that I paid hardly any attention to him. But as he had learned that I was an American, he engaged me in conversation, hurling at me a flood of questions, to which I replied as briefly as I could without being rude." Later the two met again, and we know the opinion that Napoleon formed of Miranda on this second occasion. The future Emperor observed justly that that very original character "was a Don Quixote, except that he was not mad."

Similarly, Miranda took a deeper interest in Napoleon, whose ability was then becoming recognized. "I invited him," he writes, "to dine at my home, Hotel Mirabeau, rue Mont Blanc, where I was then living. My good luck having permitted me to command considerable funds wherever I lived, I had on salary some of those agents devoted to anyone who would pay them, and lived in the greatest comfort. But I was obliged to hide it on the outside. The day that Bonaparte came to dine at my house, I noted his surprise at the luxury with which I was surrounded. My guests were some of the most energetic men whom the Mountain had left alive. Among them, the careful Bonaparte, wrapped in his dreams, shook his head at the violence of our expressions. Later, he said of me, 'Miranda is a demagogue; he is no longer a Republican.'"

The first of these interviews, in which the already famous man replied vaguely out of mere courtesy, certainly could never be forgotten by the ambitious and daring Corsican. The second, in which Napoleon thought of the revolutionary past, chaotic and doctrinaire, although noble and filled with sacrifice, likewise was probably never erased from the mind of the man who disciplined violence, put the functioning of the state on a systematic basis, and used the ability of vigorous men as necessity demanded, curbing excessive and unrestrained energy. The provocative and admired American, who fought in Europe and dreamed of liberty for America, who while in France was as interested in politics as any French aspirant to a Government post—even at the risk of being sent to the guillotine or, later, to a military prison or to Cayenne—and yet who at the same time had an understanding with the English Government, could not be tolerated by the new ruler, who wished to march forward with extraordinary caution over the remains of the greatest upheaval in all history, in order to prepare and improve the social structure without incurring new danger.

Miranda was considered by his contemporaries an active opponent of Napoleon. In reality he was not, because of indifference. Miranda was invited to take part in the conspiracy of General Pichegru, which was to end so sadly for that Hercules of outstanding intellectual gifts; but he refused the invitation in an extremely high-minded





MIRANDA IN LA CARRACA.

The famous Venezuelan painter, Arturo Michelena, has portrayed Miranda in the Arsenal at Cadiz, Spain, where he died four years after his capture by the Spanish.

letter. Fouché, who had the ear of Dionysius, ended the difficulties between the two generals by expelling Miranda from France for good. Miranda again betook himself to London, where he continued his labors on behalf of America. The *European Volume* was closed.

We have perforce limited ourselves to that *Volume* in these brief remarks about that noble life, to which humanity, for whose improvement Miranda toiled so hard, owes much; we have confined ourselves to showing that in every adversity, as in the midst of triumphs great enough to turn any one's head, his absorbing passion was his distant fatherland, for whose liberty he never ceased to labor.

Miranda did not enjoy the personal satisfactions which his talent, his charm, his decided character, and his intelligence could have given him, nor the quiet and respect, just recompense for the notable labor of many years, which should have crowned his life. In following his ideal, without letting himself be distracted by opportunities for personal aggrandizement, he was carried later from prison to prison in America and then, after much painful disillusionment, taken to die in a Cadiz dungeon. But history has glorified his name because of this sacrifice. A whole continent is grateful to him for the supreme

unselfishness which he displayed because of his love of liberty. As historical events loom larger or dwindle in importance because of their favorable or unfavorable consequences in succeeding centuries, so the growing greatness of Latin America is an ever higher pedestal for the remarkable figure of Francisco de Miranda.

His name would have been great in any event, for this man of extraordinary activities was great. Oblivion could never have engulfed his prophetic labor. But his greatest title to fame, the one most respected because it was effective even after his death, like a noble shadow of the past projected into the future, was that of having contributed to the creation of the immortal lives of new nations; he initiated the philosophy and task of redemption, and thus merits the eminent title of Precursor of all the great liberators, the teacher of heroes—a role more sublime than any other, however glorious. Never diverted from his purpose by the flattery of European society, thinking always of his unborn country and working for its emancipation through the difficult days in London, keeping himself an American during the most fascinating and widely influential of all revolutions, concerned more about his mission of liberation than about his personal triumphs, Miranda won the veneration of history and the perpetual homage of all nations.



# MIRANDA AND THE REVOLUTION IN EUROPE AND AMERICA

By C. PARRA-PÉREZ

*Minister of Venezuela in Italy*

FRANCISCO DE MIRANDA is one of those figures, rare indeed in the annals of history, whom destiny launches on the troubled sea of events and gives an important and even decisive role in the birth of a new historic period. Careful study shows his case to be perhaps unique, for his notable participation in the revolutionary movements which brought about the creation of the United States, the fall of the French monarchy, and the independence of Spanish America, makes of him a sort of living tie which binds into one golden sheaf those three separate manifestations of a great movement. His life may be compared to a multiple mirror reflecting in its different faces the varied aspects of a fateful and terrible epoch. Miranda was an intelligent and careful witness of significant events; he played the parts of both actor and victim in the extraordinary drama initiated with the protests of the English colonists against illegal taxation and ended by the battle of Ayacucho, the last episode in that general upheaval which was the most far reaching in history after the fall of the Roman Empire and the Protestant reformation.

A creole from a distant and little known colony, who left his native city to follow in Spain the usual career of a king's officer—then divided between intermittent and inconclusive warfare in Africa and the tedium of garrison life—he took part in the vast triple adventure from whose vicissitudes was to come forth the new universe of which Chateaubriand speaks. For the Venezuelan Miranda was much more than a hero of romance, an untiring traveler, a well-informed dilettante, or an irresistible Casanova, who according to persistent legend received the favors of an empress. The curiosity awakened by some minor adventures of his life, although typical in certain of their romantic aspects, sometimes obscures the true historic importance to which Miranda is entitled, not only because of his long championship of the emancipation of the Spanish colonies but also because of the part which he played in the American and French Revolutions. Let us reflect upon his name in certain decisive moments when his clear-cut influence decided the course of events for great nations. A consideration of such moments, a scrutiny of the position taken by this hero in certain memorable circumstances, has so much real interest for

history that his novellesque attributes may well be left to those who are fond of the marvelous.

How and why do we find Miranda involved first in the American and then in the French Revolution? How did he come to be situated so as to render important services both to the cause of the American rebels and to that of the French? For a long time writers and historians described him as an adventurer, a Garibaldi, a soldier of fortune, who traveled from one end of the world to the other, offering his sword to all the oppressed. This is a picture which does not fit historic facts nor faithfully depict the true character of Miranda. The Venezuelan fought in behalf of American independence as a Spanish officer, in consequence of the war then in progress between Spain and England; he fought for France at the request of the French Government, at the suggestion of French politicians and in response to promises which were never fulfilled. In reality he was a volunteer in only one cause: the independence of Latin America. His experience in the American war and the friendships which he afterwards formed with distinguished personages in the United States, like his later battles for France and his influence on certain Girondists, had no value in his eyes except as they were related to the fortunes of his own country. Pensacola and Antwerp were secondary threads in the fabric of that life, complex although simple, unchanging and unified in its harmonious diversity. But nevertheless the name of Miranda, inseparable from Latin American history, is also inseparably interwoven with events of the first magnitude in the history of the United States and Europe.

Aide de camp and valued counselor of General Cagigal in Cuba, Captain Miranda took an active part in the military and political operations of the Spanish against the English. Present at the siege of Pensacola, his valor was rewarded by promotion to a lieutenant colonelcy. Later he took part in the attack on the Bahamas and arranged with the British commander at New Providence the terms by which these islands were surrendered to Spain. The decisive operation in the American Revolution was undoubtedly the entry of de Grasse's fleet into Chesapeake Bay, for it brought about the victory of the American forces at Yorktown and the consequent surrender of Lord Cornwallis. And it was owing to the personal efforts of Miranda at Habana—Pownall promised Pitt documentary proof of this—that the Spanish authorities were able to furnish de Grasse £35,000 and supplies to outfit the squadron at that critical moment. Thus, in addition to his participation in the engagements in Florida and the Bahamas, this Venezuelan officer exerted his influence over the Governor of Cuba to arrange for equipping the French fleet and did all that lay within his power to help it fulfill its glorious destiny. It is therefore only just that Francisco de Miranda should be inscribed



De par Le Roy

A tous Gouverneurs et nos Lieutenans  
Généraux en nos Provinces, à Armées, Gouverneurs  
particuliers à Commandans de nos Villes, Places  
et Troupes, et à tous autres nos Officiers, Justiciers et  
Sujets qu'il appartiendra, Salut. Nous voulons et  
vous mandons très expressément que vous ayez à laisser  
librement passer des fins de Meroff, Gentilhomme Livonien,  
allant à Londres, sans aucun empêchement.

Donné à Paris le 3. Juin 1789.  
Le Roy

Donné à Versailles le 3. Juin 1789.

J. B. de la Roche  
Secrétaire

Par Le Roy

A. L. P. M. de la Roche

Gratis

From the "Archivo del General Miranda"

PASSPORT GRANTED TO MIRANDA BY LOUIS XVI.

This passport, dated June 3, 1789, and signed by Louis XVI at Versailles, was issued to Miranda, then traveling in France as a Livonian gentleman named Count de Meroff. It was good for one month only, and enabled the holder to pass freely from France to London without any interference by civil or military authorities. In the upper left-hand corner was superimposed, when the papers were bound, a facsimile of the permit granted Miranda by Frederick the Great on September 4, 1785, to attend military maneuvers in Potsdam.

on the roll of those who contributed to the foundation of the United States.

Soon Colonel Miranda left his subordinate position in the Spanish Army and, in expectation of a permanent break with his king and government, traveled through the United States, studied its institutions, customs and battlefields, and discussed the possible independence of the Spanish American colonies with Washington, Adams, Hamilton, and Knox. He was beginning a series of journeys which from America led him to England and thence to almost all the countries of Europe. We can follow him through Germany and Switzerland, Russia, Scandinavia, and Holland. Frederick the Great admitted him to his famous reviews. He was a protégé of Catherine the Great. In Denmark his penetrating criticisms induced the Government to reform the prisons. He passed a year in France incognito under the name of Count de Meroff, a Livonian gentleman, according to a passport signed by Louis XVI himself. In Zürich, Lavater, the ecclesiastical physiognomist, set down in admirable verses his impression of the traveler whom "so few things escape", who "lives in the consciousness of strength", and whom nature had endowed in the highest degree with "resolution, energy, skill, and disdainful pride."

Years fruitful in experience to Miranda were those between the Peace of Versailles and the fall of the Bastille; years of gestation, which saw the extinction of the *ancien régime* and the development of enticing philosophies whose virus was to endanger French civilization and precipitate all Europe into bloody warfare. Miranda, although constantly under the surveillance of the Spanish police, wrote for the newspapers and expounded to kings and dignitaries his plan for securing the independence of the Spanish colonies. His untiring propaganda made him a sort of traveling salesman who took upon himself the duty of launching on the market of ideas and politics the important business of American emancipation. The first notable result of this intensive labor was to awaken the interest of European governments in those colonies, which until then had been considered secondary factors in the schemes of foreign offices.

In London Miranda rounded out his knowledge of English ideas, and became personally acquainted with political leaders and the guides of public opinion. Wilberforce, Cooper, Maitland, and many others instructed him in the humanitarian movement, while the Whig leaders reconciled him to the principles of liberalism to which, while he was in the United States, he preferred the conservative Tory doctrine.

In 1790 Pitt, in difficulties with Spain, took the initiative—as Count Woronzoff informed the Russian Government—towards coming into contact with Miranda. Then began negotiations for obtain-

ing for the Spanish colonies the moral and material support of England. These negotiations were to last twenty long years, except for the hiatus created by Miranda's stay in France, and their first phase was ended by the Anglo-Spanish treaty of the Escorial. Miranda's purpose was to withdraw South America from the domination of the mother country but not to hand it over to the English; his plan at this time consisted of forming a monarchy with the aid of England, which country would be granted commercial advantages, a strategic naval base, and, if it were unavoidable, part of the Brazilian colonies of Portugal. He did not propose a British protectorate but alliance and friendship, in war and in peace. "I do not wish English troops in our territories," the negotiator said later, although soon afterwards, under the pressure of circumstances, he agreed to cooperate in the proposed expedition of Sir Arthur Wellesley. Miranda's opportunism was revealed by the fact that, well knowing the sympathies of the English Government, he advised a monarchy as the eventual form of government for the new state; and this is not the only example of political realism found in the career of a man so improperly called an idealist, in the derogatory sense of the word. It should nevertheless be noted, if Miranda's political ideas are to be correctly understood, that he never ceased to prefer the English form of Government to any other and that his experience of the disorders in France only strengthened his convictions and preferences.

It may be affirmed that Miranda, through his contact with the French Revolution, lost a large part of his enthusiasm for abstract ideas of liberty and clung less rigidly to his doctrinaire points of view. From London he had followed with deep interest the course of events in France, and some witnesses declared later before the Revolutionary Tribunal that the Venezuelan, as a friend of Fox and of the Opposition, was a strong adversary of the fiery Burke who, in the name of English traditions, vehemently preached a crusade against the Revolution. About this time Miranda, discussing with Talleyrand the merits of the Constitution of 1791, declared to the celebrated diplomat that the presence of a king on the throne was incompatible with French liberty. Apparently, neither the future Girondists nor the future Montagnards were thinking of a republic when Miranda already considered one both desirable and necessary for France. This was the time when Brissot, Buzot, Isnard, and even Vergniaud were strict constitutionalists, that is to say, monarchists; when Saint-Just proclaimed that a monarchy was the only form of government suitable to a great nation; when Robespierre accused the Assembly of usurping royal power; when Danton, fixing his eyes on the Duke of Chartres, sought for a "revolutionary king." Miranda, on the other hand, a Jacobin of the left although he had never belonged to the Club, considered as hybrid and impractical the system which



took the crown from the head of Louis XVI and replaced it by a liberty cap, which anointed the king not with consecrated oil but with popular approval, and which endeavored to preserve the shadow of that royal majesty which had vanished in the storm.

In the spring of 1792 Miranda, well supplied with republican convictions, entered into intimate relations with the Girondists, who at that time formed the dominant party in the Council of the King and were arousing public opinion with their demagogic preachings. To Miranda at that time and in that country "republic" and "liberty" were synonymous. To liberty he gave the ingenuous homage of a humanist steeped in literature and history, still aloof from the bitter struggle of reality, still untouched by hard experience. His republic was the Athens that he knew in Thucydides, or even more nearly the Rome of which he had read in Livy and Tacitus. "That I should be one of the defenders of liberty", he wrote to Count Woronzoff, "should not surprise you, for you know that she is my favorite goddess and that I consecrated myself to her service long before France thought of paying any attention to her." Eight years later, after having miraculously escaped the guillotine and been expelled from the country which he had bravely defended against foreign enemies and which he loved with the love of a good citizen, Miranda was to hail the advent of Bonaparte's imperialism as "the return of the Revolution to its original principles," with this high-sounding and inexact formula—used also by the First Consul—tolling the knell of his illusions of 1792. To tell the truth, it was not strange that the consular constitution and the personal government inaugurated in the year VIII should please the former Jacobin, since the bases of the first and the methods of the second did not differ appreciably from those which he himself had championed in July 1795 in his notable essay on the ills from which the republic suffered and their possible remedies.

But before surrendering to the constructive genius of Bonaparte, the Revolution was to bring about a devastating series of changes in the internal economy of the French nation and because of the insensate policy of Brissot and his friends to plunge Europe into bloody warfare for a quarter of a century. What a tremendous and extraordinary epic was this, in which all the energies of a great people were stretched to the utmost limit for national defense, while the splendor of military victories cloaked the excesses of the Terror and of anarchical convulsions! Miranda, again not on his own initiative, took part in the revolutionary movement, to which he contributed political and military knowledge. For a fleeting moment he was military leader of a powerful faction, only to be accused, imprisoned, and finally proscribed. He had never been sparing in his criticism of the French people, whose apparent lightness of character conflicted with his own exaggerated



circumspection, and in spite of his respect for ancient Rome he proclaimed what today is called the superiority of the Anglo-Saxon, at least in politics. Nevertheless he loyally adopted the program of the revolution and devoted himself to the service of France against England and against all Europe. This was because our Venezuelan expected that the triumph of the revolution and of the theories on which it was based would create a world condition favorable to the independence of the Spanish colonies and would give him personally the chance to bring it about. "But," he added in the aforementioned letter to Woronzoff, "what was a still stronger inducement [to enlist in the service of France] was the hope of one day being able to be useful to my poor country, which I cannot abandon." This was the prime reason why Miranda consented to fight for the Revolution. He did not request a post: the government offered it to him, even insisted that he should take it. "I begged him most earnestly," said General Servan, Minister of War, "to aid France with his talents . . .," and Miranda himself said, "In 1791-92, after repeated urgings, I accepted the honorable post which was offered me to defend French liberty against the league of despots."

Commissioned a general of the Republic, the ex-colonel of His Catholic Majesty showed himself equal to the responsibilities which he assumed. On September 12, eight days before Valmy, he defeated Count Kalckreuth at Briquenay, where for the first time the soldiers of the King of Prussia yielded the field to troops of the new regime. Almost at the same time Stengel, another foreigner in the service of France, repulsed the attacks of Hohenlohe at Saint-Juvin. Shortly afterwards, Miranda saved the army, disorganized by the panic of Montcheutin, and concentrated it at Wargemoulin; indubitably it was he, aided by Stengel and Duval, who was responsible for victory in this decisive campaign. Soon the artillery battle at Valmy<sup>1</sup> and the subsequent retreat of Friedrich Wilhelm opened the way for the stupendous and repeated victories of the French.

Meanwhile Brissot, who was in charge of revolutionary foreign policy at that moment, planned to incite the Latin American colonies to rebel and tried to have the command of an expedition to Santo Domingo given to Miranda. At his suggestion the Executive Council asked the general to discuss this grave matter in Paris with its diplomatic committee. Miranda did not desire to shake off the

<sup>1</sup> In "The Outline of History" H. G. Wells says: "This battle at Valmy—it was little more than a cannonade—was one of the decisive battles in the world's history. The Revolution was saved." (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1921, p. 875.)

It may be of interest to American readers to recall that of the three Revolutionary Armies of this time—the those of the North, the Center, and the Rhine—the first was originally commanded by Rochambeau and the second by Lafayette. Dumouriez, to whose army Miranda was assigned, was the third general to command the Army of the North, succeeding Luckner, who was made general in chief of all three armies. Kellerman was in command of the Army of the Center and the Duc de Biron of the Army of the Rhine.—EDITOR.

# Conseil exécutif provisoire

duc d'Orléans d'employés de l'armée française. Miranda se son grade de maréchal de camp et le grade de Nord, commandant en chef par le St. Odonneur, pour l'ensemble de la dite armée les fonctions de son grade, persuadé qu'il justifiera l'opinion qu'on a conçue de son patriotisme par de tels talens militaires.

En conséquence il sera pour le maintien de l'ordre, de la liberté et de l'égalité, pour ce qui lui sera présenté par le général en chef de la dite armée et par les lieutenants généraux qui sont employés. Et conformément au décret, quant aux réquisitions qui paraîtront lui être faites par les Corps administratifs à ce qui lui sera présenté à cet égard par les Officiers de l'Assemblée nationale.

Mande et ordonne le Conseil exécutif provisoire, sans tarder, qui composent la dite armée, à un officier de l'Etat Major, à l'effet de l'arrêter et du Général, à un Commissaire des guerres à l'effet d'employer près d'eux de recommander le dit St. Miranda pour un Drapeau commandant subordonné au général en chef de la dite armée, et aux lieutenants généraux qui y seront et lui obéir en tout et qu'il leur ordonne pour l'honneur de la gloire de l'armée française.

Fait au Conseil exécutif provisoire à Paris le quatre Septembre mil sept cent quatrevingt deux, à l'effet de la liberté et de l'égalité.

*Miranda*

*Danton*

*Monge*

*J. Servan*

*Grouvelle*  
*Le Brun*

From the "Archivo del General Miranda"

## THE APPOINTMENT OF MIRANDA AS FIELD MARSHAL OF FRANCE.

This document, issued in Paris September 4, 1792, by the Provisional Executive Council, informed Miranda of his appointment as Field Marshal of the Army of the North, whose commander in chief was Dumouriez. Notice of Miranda's appointment had been published by the Council September 1, 1792. The signatures affixed to the appointment are those of Roland, Danton, Le Brun, Monge, J. Servan, and Grouvelle, the secretary.

Spanish yoke only to deliver the empire to a foreign power; his plan, we repeat, was to make South America independent, not to have it change masters. Furthermore, he began to be disquieted by the turn which ideas were taking in France, for even at that time he was at bottom a kind of authoritarian conservative to whom it was repugnant to make concessions to anarchy. For these reasons, to which perhaps others of a personal nature might be added, the general sought successfully to dissuade the Government from sending an expedition to America. Because of this opposition he was able to say later that he had freed the colonies from "the fatal influence of the French system."

As commanding general of the army which took the fortress at Antwerp and conquered the Duchy of Cleves and Prussian Guelderland, it devolved upon Miranda to carry out one of the most important acts of the Revolution in the Low Countries: the opening of the Scheldt to international commerce. "Dutch injustice and tyranny are now, as they were two hundred years ago, the only obstacles to navigation," wrote the general to the Minister of War. He added, nevertheless, that the definite solution of this political question should be obtained by negotiations between France and Holland. The Convention in public session listened to the reading of the dispatches which told how the Venezuelan general, at the head of French troops, all of whom "cherished their country in their hearts and liberty in their souls," pursued the fleeing enemy to Roermond.

Then came Miranda's temporary functions as commander in chief of the army of operations in Belgium which the executive council entrusted to him by an order of January 5, 1793, and which Miranda carried out with his characteristic activity, highly praised by Jomini, that incomparable military critic. Meanwhile, his political importance increased to such a point that in the Convention the ballot for the nomination of a new Minister of Marine showed more votes for him than for Bougainville, d'Estaing, and other illustrious French officers. January and February of that year marked the climax of Miranda's career as a general of the French Revolution.

Unfortunately there soon began a period of disasters, the responsibility for which is ascribable chiefly to Dumouriez but is also shared by General Valence, his second in command. Miranda, who had received orders to attack Maestricht with obviously insufficient forces, was obliged to retire because of the defeat suffered by La Noue at Aldenhoven; the French troops retreated precipitately toward Louvain, harried by the enemy, who finally ceased his long inaction. In the midst of the general disorder—there is documentary evidence which affords indisputable proof—Miranda remained calm, saved his corps of 12,000 men, "doubled" for Dumouriez who was fighting in Holland, and helped more than any one else to reorganize the

entire army, whose destruction Valence had believed inevitable. The commander in chief wrote him: "I should have thought everything was lost if you had not reassured me concerning your position and the spirit of the army; Valence's letter, in particular, made me despair."

At Neerwinden Dumouriez madly tempted fortune and against all the dictates of prudence cast his regiments against impregnable positions. Miranda, commander of the left wing, who had endeavored to dissuade his general from this enterprise, fought bravely but left 2,000 of his soldiers on the field of battle. In the new retreat, which the Venezuelan was ordered to cover, there occurred under his immediate orders the hard-fought skirmishes at Pellemberg, for which unscrupulous historians have until the present refused to give credit to the skill of the foreign general.

But now Miranda, alone among the great generals, refused to follow Dumouriez in his plan to overthrow the Republic; and before the officials of the Convention the rancorous turncoat put the responsibility of his military failure on the shoulders of his lieutenant. The decisive dialogue between the two generals, cast in Roman mold according to the stilted fashion of the day, took place after dinner:

"It is necessary," said Dumouriez, "to go to Paris with the army in order to reestablish liberty. I am resolved to cross the Rubicon."

"I think that the remedy is worse than the disease," responded Miranda, "and I shall certainly prevent it if I can. You are not Caesar, nor is the French Army composed of the legions of the conqueror of Gaul. If it were suspected that you harbored such a purpose the soldiers would answer you with shots and saber thrusts."

"Would you fight against me, Miranda?"

"Perhaps, if you fight against liberty."

"Would you then be Labienus?"

"Labienus or Cato, you will always find me on the side of the Republic."

Although acquitted by the Revolutionary Tribunal and crowned with laurels by the shouting crowd which bore him home on their shoulders, nevertheless Miranda from that time ceased to play an active role in the Revolution. Without delay Robespierre's tyranny once more thrust him into prison, and only the tenth Thermidor saved him from the scaffold. In Vendémiaire he suffered unjust and inexplicable persecution. A victim finally of the proscriptions of the eighteenth Fructidor, Miranda took refuge in England, determined to close his "Book of Europe" and to begin that "American volume" of which Colonel Smith, Washington's aide de camp, was later to speak, and in which are written some of the most interesting pages of the history of our continent. Miranda now began anew his career as Precursor. Of his contribution to the evolution of ideas during the French Revolution, above all of the effective and honorable



service which he rendered on the field of battle to France, whose soldiers he commanded against the enemy, there remains merely the inscription of his name on the Arc de Triomphe in the Étoile, and a hazy memory relegated to outer darkness by the majority of French historians, who are perhaps secretly incommoded by the irruption of that annoying foreigner into the glorious annals of their nation.

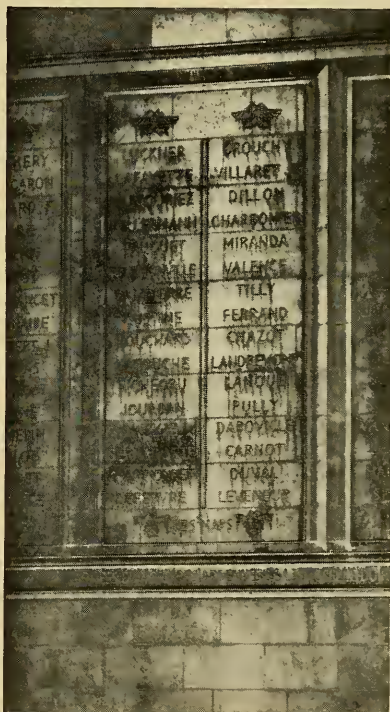
Notwithstanding the glorious page of the "book of Europe", it is in the "American volume" that Miranda's titles to imperishable fame are inscribed. Having abandoned forever the internal politics of France, and having as his sole estate only a wealth of disillusion, the indefatigable agitator renewed negotiations in London, opened others with Washington, and spun the threads of his intrigue around the vast body of the Spanish empire. Meantime, before the amazed eyes of Europe, Napoleon described his blazing parabola and society was transformed amid the resounding clash of arms and universal suffering. While Miranda labored for the independence of America, indifferent to everything except that idea fixed in his mind with the persistency of an obsession, nations and men, England, France, the United States, Pitt, Wellington, Napoleon, had no importance for him except as they might assist in one way or another in the great plan of emancipation. In a combined effort Buenos Aires, Lima, and Bogota meant to him as much as Caracas, the native city whose happy inhabitants, under the calm blue sky, were later found to have unforeseen reserves of heroism. Miranda inspired the allegiance to Latin America as a whole which, after the fall of the monarchy, replaced fealty to Spain. He spoke in the same tenor to his various agents; he addressed the "Columbian continent" through each one of its provinces; his revolution was one, just as the history, the future, and the interests of our nations are one. He was the federator of common activities, the leader in the orderly and simultaneous movement against the impotent or usurped crown. The old "traveling salesman of liberty" started direct negotiations in almost all our capitals through correspondents who sought to bring together all those desiring independence; furthermore, he determined to synchronize, when favorable circumstances permitted, the revolutionary movements that were to crush Spanish rule from Mexico to the River Plate. Such was the double role, historical and political, of a personage whom posterity is now trying to judge truly in the light of more nearly complete information.

Miranda, the "traveling salesman", invested by his own authority in the acephalous condition of the colonies with the diplomatic representation of the various provinces, and acting as liaison officer between them, held in Latin America the unique and singular position which justifies the title of *Precursor*, inferior in dignity only to that of *Liberator*, given to Bolívar by the peoples whom he freed.



#### THE ARC DE TRIOMPHE IN PARIS.

Above: This imposing monument was erected by Napoleon in the Place de l'Etoile to commemorate the victories of 1805-6 and honor the Revolutionary armies. At right: The name of Miranda is engraved amid those of his fellow-officers, Luckner, Lafayette, Dumouriez, Kellermann, Dillon, and Valence, in one of the lateral arcades.



In the struggle for continental independence, Miranda displayed to the full the exceptional qualities with which he was endowed: Clear-sightedness, depth of mind, eloquence, a fertile imagination and, above all, a persistence that nothing discouraged, that obstacles only aroused and increased. There is no incident until the fatal days of 1812 to show that "the most extraordinary and wonderfully energetic man" whom James Lloyd's son said he had ever seen even once despaired of his cause. To appreciate fully the temper of his character and the tenacity of his purpose, one must follow him step by step in his negotiations to persuade the British Government to assist his enterprise or simply to ignore the cautious intrigues which Spain watched and periodically denounced; follow him in his efforts to induce the United States to abandon its isolation and neutrality and support the policy of a free and independent Spanish America; follow him in his attempt to arouse his own compatriots, the immense majority of whom remained faithful to the monarchy and whose creole leaders furthermore cherished the unconquerable distrust of aristocrats for the son of a Canary Island merchant. For fourteen years he sought the amalgamation or transformation of heterogeneous and even conflicting elements, indispensable, in his opinion, to our independence: the interests of England, the interests of the United States, the relations of the colonists to the mother country. It was only after his death that the forces that his untiring efforts had aroused and sought to utilize were induced to cooperate.

The act or convention signed in Paris on December 22, 1797, by which Miranda and two other Latin Americans arrogated to themselves the representation of the Spanish colonies, and the Venezuelan promised to negotiate with the British Cabinet, also defines the policy of the Precursor. An alliance between Great Britain, the United States and the provinces of Spanish America after they had been converted into sovereign nations was in his opinion "the only hope remaining to the liberty audaciously outraged by the detestable principles of the French Revolution", and the only means "of securing a balance of power capable of restraining the destructive and devastating ambition of the French system." Free trade, canals across Panama and Nicaragua, and the eventual cession of some of the West Indies were, in general, the offers which Miranda thought might be made to the British and Americans in exchange for their help and friendship.

Grenville, who exerted a preponderant influence in the British Cabinet, opposed Miranda's suggestions with a calculated inertia, for he feared that, by attacking Spain in America, England would force Spain completely under French influence. Nevertheless, Great Britain carried out minor operations and occupied the island of Trinidad, a convenient base for harrying the mainland. This beautiful island province was thus lost to the future Republic of Venezuela.



Rufus King, Minister of the United States in London, transmitted to his Government Miranda's suggestions and various agents of Miranda crossed the Atlantic to stir up feeling, advising the creoles at the same time not to adopt "the Jacobin system of principles which would make liberty a tomb instead of a cradle, as is shown by the whole history of the French Revolution." Although the Venezuelan here vented his rancor against those who had expelled him from Paris, more than anything else he was trying to satisfy his allies as to the political consequences of colonial rebellion. Such a criterion thenceforward inspired the negotiations, which were prolonged until 1810. Miranda's moral and spiritual ties with France were broken, and the memories of 1793 caused only aversion. As for the marvelous Napoleonic adventure, the former *sans culotte* general considered it simply usurpation, the reign of deception and tyranny.

The perseverance of the Precursor was submitted to a bitter proof by the miscarriage of his expedition of 1806, thwarted because of the hostility of the Spanish colonists to Miranda's forces and also because of the lack of active support from the British naval authorities. The failure at Coro proved that the inhabitants of the Captaincy, the upper classes as well as the populace, intended to support the monarchy against the attempts of a man who, according to the clever propaganda of the Spaniards, was an expatriate turncoat, the agent successively of the French Revolution and of the British Cabinet. The opinions of the Venezuelan oligarchy later changed completely with regard to the question of independence but not with regard to its champion, and the stubborn opposition which he later encountered in Caracas was the principal cause of defeat in 1812.

In 1808 the British Government was preparing an expedition to the central and northern provinces of Spanish America, and Miranda, again in London, was aiding Sir Arthur Wellesley with his advice. When in May the population of Madrid rose against the French, England suddenly changed its policy—the troops that were to have been sent to America landed in Portugal, and with Sir Arthur at their head began the terrible campaign that ended by expelling the soldiers of Napoleon from the peninsula. The future victor of Waterloo remarked much later to Lord Stanhope: "I think that I never had a more difficult task than to say to Miranda on behalf of the Government that we were abandoning his plan." The wrath of the Precursor on being given this information was indescribable, and Wellesley had to wait patiently to continue the conversation until Miranda had recovered his composure. Miranda at this time reaffirmed his position clearly and unequivocally: to Sir Arthur's invitation to accompany him he gave a negative reply because he thought he should not fight against the French, his former comrades in arms, and because, as he had said to Pitt eighteen years before, he did not



wish to mix in the affairs of Spain in Europe. Furthermore, he decidedly opposed any idea of conquest in America, condemned the British attack on Buenos Aires, praised the victory of Viceroy Liniers and of the people of that city who repelled the invasion: "I am and always shall be," he wrote to an Argentine correspondent, "a stubborn defender of the rights, liberties, and independence of our America." The supposed instrument of England bitterly censured the political wiles of London, warmly praising "the sacred egoism of Latin America": "We must avoid becoming involved in this conflict", he said to the Marquis del Toro, "and prevent the calamities of war from being transported to the continent of Columbus; let me make use of this opportunity to free ourselves from the foreigner."

On April 19, 1810, Caracas overthrew royal authority and with the formation of its Supreme Junta opened the decisive period of South American revolution. In December, Miranda returned to his native city after forty years' absence. Destiny was to be fulfilled by the evolution of events leading to the emancipation of Venezuela. In the declaration of independence he had more influence than any other man because of his constant activities in the Patriotic Society and in Congress.

A completely documented account of the epoch known as the First Republic of Venezuela is still to be written; probably it exists today only in the notebook of some impartial historian or dilettante. It may be said that until now the data for an opinion on Miranda's activities in Caracas have been interpreted according to sentiment rather than in the light of reason; hence, the gamut runs from pure and simple condemnation to condescending indulgence. I do not mean that there have not been praiseworthy attempts on the part of Venezuelan writers to guide the judgment of posterity toward an equitable appreciation of men and events; but the pages devoted to this period, besides being brief, are shrouded in a semiobscurity difficult to penetrate, in contrast with those upon which the incomparable epic of Bolívar was so soon to shine in full splendor.

Miranda is and should be considered above all as the hero of July 5, when Venezuelan independence, the noble consequence of his labors for liberty, was declared. That day is written in gold in the history of our Republic, which was to be baptized in the blood of innumerable combats. What did it signify that in this tremendous struggle the cause should meet defeat first at La Victoria, then at La Guaira and Urica, if each time its champions arose braver and more determined at the call of the Liberator and his sword? Surrender, defeat, the reconquests of Monteverde, Boves, and Morillo, anarchy, rebellion, the gallows, were only incidents in a drama whose inevitable climax was foreseen when on July 5, 1811, Venezuela was born immortal.

# FRANCISCO DE MIRANDA

By VICENTE DÁVILA

*Director of the National Archives of Venezuela and of the "Archivo del General Miranda"*

**F**RANCISCO DE MIRANDA was born in Caracas, Venezuela, March 28, 1750, the son of Sebastián and Francisca Antonia Rodríguez de Miranda. His mother was a native of Caracas, but his father came from the Canary Islands.

Francisco studied arts and philosophy at the local university and about January 1771 he left for Spain where, in April of the next year, he began his military career by purchasing a captain's commission for 40,000 pesetas. In 1774-75 he took part in the defense of Melilla, Morocco, then besieged by the Moors. There he prepared a plan for a daring sally from the fortress, and as a reward for his services asked to be allowed to enter the Navy as a lieutenant, adducing in his own favor his knowledge of mathematics and languages—English, French, and Italian, besides his native Spanish.

His request was not granted, and he continued to serve in Spain as captain in the Princess' Regiment, but a misunderstanding with Col. Juan Roca soon forced him to request a transfer to another unit. Spain was at the time fighting with France, the ally of the United States, in the war against Great Britain, and in 1780 Miranda was sent to Cuba as aide to Gen. Juan Manuel Cagigal, a former colonel of the Princess' Regiment. Thus, in 1781 Miranda took part in the capture of Pensacola, Fla., and was promoted to the rank of lieutenant colonel for his meritorious conduct.

Appointed to parley with the defeated English governor, Miranda won the regard of Cagigal but aroused the envy of the Spanish officers. Shortly afterward he was made commissioner to negotiate the exchange of prisoners with the Governor of Jamaica. While on that island Miranda acquired two ships for Cuba through an English merchant by the name of Allwood in exchange for a promise to allow him to make a contraband shipment to Habana. Denounced by the authorities, both Miranda and Cagigal, who had acquiesced in the plan, were prosecuted despite official explanations made by the latter. Nevertheless, Cagigal, who believed that the mission was favorable to the interests of Spain, recommended his aide for promotion to the rank of colonel.

His right to promotion was further strengthened by another exchange of prisoners which he negotiated for Cagigal in May 1782



From the "Archivo del General Miranda."

#### GENERAL JUAN MANUEL DE CAGIGAL.

This likeness of General Cagigal in the Miranda Archives has two comments in Miranda's handwriting: Above, "Piratarum debellator", and below, "Sacrifiant sa vie à son Pais, à l'Etat, Cagigal est l'amour du Peuple et du Soldat."

after the conquest of New Providence, capital of the Bahama Islands, as well as by his services in Haiti under Gen. Bernardo Gálvez. However, the visit of Campbell, ex-governor of Pensacola, stimulated the jealousy of the Spanish officers and gained him the ill will of the bishop on religious grounds. They plotted against Miranda, who labored under the disadvantage of being a creole, and notwithstanding his self-defense in an incontrovertible memorandum, he lost favor with José de Gálvez, Minister of the Indies, because of being "a passionate Anglophile". Cagigal was ordered to arrest Miranda, but



knowing how unjust the action of the Government was, he protected his subordinate, who in June 1783 managed to take passage for South Carolina.

Upon his arrival in the United States he was notified by Seagrove, a Boston merchant, that the 14,000 *pesos fuertes* which he had saved during his twelve years of service under the Spanish flag had been seized by English vessels. Without resources Miranda found life endurable only because of the dream that he outlined at Robert Livingston's in New York in 1784: the emancipation of the South American colonies. For eighteen months he traveled from Charleston to Boston, making the acquaintance of statesmen, writers, merchants, and women of the fashionable world and observing what independence had done for the people of the United States. With the letter of introduction to President Washington that Cagigal had given him he was able to meet the liberators of the North and talk to them about the emancipation of the South.

In December 1784 he left for England, arriving in February 1785. There he learned that his protector, Cagigal, was imprisoned in Madrid. Immediately he wrote to the King asking to be allowed to resign his commission and rank in the Army and requesting his back pay and the reimbursement of the cost of his commission "so that my countrymen, being better informed as to their actual situation, may profit by my experience and learn to moderate the noble impulses by which American youth is commonly guided." This was one man's challenge to a monarchy. Thereafter the great revolutionary never ceased to conspire for the emancipation of his people and continually tried to win followers in both the New and the Old World.

After a brief sojourn in London, where *The Morning Chronicle* hailed him as the future emancipator of South America, he left for the Continent in August 1785 in the company of Col. W. S. Smith, whom he had known in the United States. The object of the trip, as he wrote in his diary, was "to improve my defective education", a long-cherished dream which he had in vain tried to fulfill while in Spain.

With Colonel Smith, Secretary of the American Embassy in London and son-in-law of John Adams, he attended the military maneuvers held by Frederick the Great at Potsdam and continued his travels through Austria, Italy, Greece, and Constantinople, and along the Black Sea. In Italy he secured a list of the creole Jesuits living in that country who had been expelled from America, and in Greece he acquired some property. Following his habit of studying everything as he went along in order to compare and analyze the habits and customs of the races and peoples he visited, he amused himself, even during a storm on the Black Sea, by reading works on Russia.

In December 1786 he met Prince Potemkin, Prince Dolgorouky, and the Prince of Nassau-Siegen at Kherson. With Potemkin, chief



Minister of Catherine II, he traveled through the Crimea, discussing with him politics, art, history, and science. This friendship was destined to improve Miranda's precarious financial situation. The following February he met the Empress at Kieff. She was charmed with Miranda because of his broad knowledge and sympathized with him because of his persecution by the Spanish Inquisition. She could not understand how a man could be burned because he did not believe in the divinity of another man. They also found common ground in criticizing the apparent frivolity of the French. In the Imperial Court he lived on an equal plane with the nobles who accompanied Catherine on her travels through the Empire, and to complete the picture he allowed himself to be called *Count* for the first time.

In March 1787 he made a brief trip to Canieff with Marshall Roumanstzoff to meet King Stanislaus II of Poland and Prince Joseph Poniatowski, who later became one of Napoleon's generals. The following April he left Kieff for Moscow where, as well as in every other city he had visited since leaving Cuba, his letters of recommendation made it possible for him to meet many persons of distinction. In St. Petersburg, whither he betook himself after his sojourn in Moscow, Macanaz, the Spanish Chargé d'Affaires, protested Miranda's use of a Spanish uniform and the title of count. Miranda, considering himself beyond the reach of the King, answered haughtily. When Macanaz requested his extradition, Catherine befriended Miranda, authorizing his use of a Russian colonel's uniform and having her Foreign Minister, Count Bezborodko, reply to the Spanish Chargé that the esteem in which she held the Colonel was due to his personal qualities and had nothing to do with the rank he held in Spain.

Bezborodko and Potemkin told Miranda that in order to avoid his being persecuted Catherine desired him to remain at her court, where he would be esteemed and wealthy. Deeply touched, Miranda answered that in view of his secret ambition to set the Spanish colonies free he could not accept such an honor. Catherine applauded his motives and manifested a strong interest in his project. It may be noted that Miranda's conduct on this occasion proves he was not the adventurer he has sometimes been called. Upon leaving St. Petersburg Miranda carried a letter to the Russian legations in Europe ordering them to give him aid and protection and in addition received a letter of credit for £2,000, with which he paid with interest debts contracted after his visit to New York.

In September 1787 he sailed across the Baltic to Stockholm. There he met King Gustavus III and visited mines, foundries, locks, asylums, and jails. To see the museum collections he arranged some lights, with the help of two artists. Continuing his travels to Norway, he admired the waterfalls of that country, went to see hospitals and palaces, cultivated the friendship of scientists and complimented the

ladies of the court. In December 1787 he arrived at Copenhagen, where he advocated prison reforms, especially the separation of minors from older criminals, and solicited the pardon of two women guilty of infanticide, pleading that they were suffering from hysteria because of their physical condition. His requests were heard by the Prince Royal and the Prime Minister. In various factories he initiated

SILHOUETTE OF  
CATHERINE THE  
GREAT OF RUSSIA.

This silhouette of Catherine the Great was made by Count Mamonoſſ, a favorite of the Empress, and given to Miranda, who preserved it in his Archives. In February 1787, the Precursor of South American independence was presented to the Empress by Prince Bezborodko in Kieff. She was so much attracted by the charm of his manner and the extent of his knowledge that she took him under her protection, and tried to persuade him to remain in Russia and enter her service. Miranda explained that the liberation of the Spanish colonies in America was dearer to him than the titles and honors of Europe. He did accept, however, the privilege of wearing the uniform of colonel in a regiment commanded by Prince Potemkin, and a letter of credit of two thousand pounds; when he left Russia he took with him a copy of a circular letter issued by Catherine to her ambassador at Vienna and her ministers at other European capitals, requesting them to assist and protect him whenever necessary.

ETAT PRÉSENT

DE LA

RUSSE.



à St. Petersbourg & à Leipzig,

1783.

From the "Archivo del General Miranda"

reforms for the benefit of the workers. In the laboratory of General Weiner he was shown experiments in electricity. He discussed astrol-ogy with Hemsterhuys, anatomy with Camper, history with Baron Hupsch, and the East Indies Company with Boers. The cleanliness of the Dutch he contrasted with the carelessness of the Spaniards, Italians, and Turks.

On horseback and on foot he traveled through the Rhine country and Switzerland. He noted the difference in the hygiene of the various cantons, and the dirtiness of some made him write: "Cleanliness is a virtue which should be taught to man." Among the savants whom he met on this trip were Beccaria, Lavater, Gibbon, Fabre, and Raynal. With them he discussed criminology, physiognomy, English history, and the politics and history of Spanish America. Lavater forecast a brilliant future for him and had his portrait drawn; Madame Rieux, a friend of Voltaire, told him many amusing anecdotes of the philosopher's life.

From Genoa he went to Cogolletto, the birthplace of Columbus, and there found a relative and a bad portrait of the Discoverer. In France, traveling incognito to avoid being persecuted by the Spaniards, he studied the Roman remains in the south.

In June 1789 he returned to London. He was then about forty years old, and with the knowledge he had acquired during four years of travel in Europe he found himself ready to carry out his projects. He cultivated the friendship of English statesmen, men of learning, and merchants: Fox, Sheridan, Burke, Pownall, Pitt, Grenville, Bentham, Mill, Priestley, Price, Payne and Turnbull. The last-named was to rescue him from his financial difficulties.

In 1790 he initiated his negotiations with Pitt and Lord Grenville. Without compromising the sovereignty of the countries to be liberated he presented as an inducement for English aid the vast market Britain would gain through the emancipation of the Spanish colonies. He continued to travel through England, making valuable contacts and never neglecting his love affairs.

About the end of 1791, disgusted with Pitt, who had deceived him, and knowing that there were French royalists in London soliciting help for their King, he decided to go to France and arrived in Paris in March 1792. There he met Brissot, Pétion, Gensonné, and other Girondists.

The *coup d'état* of August 10, 1792, against the monarchy made him realize that the republican revolution was a fact and consequently would involve Spain and her colonies. Miranda had censured the Constitution of 1791 because it was royalist.

On August 25, Servan, Minister of War, and Pétion, Mayor of Paris, informed him that the Government had accepted the conditions that he had stipulated for entrance into the French service: that his project for the emancipation of the South American colonies be given consideration and that his financial necessities be met after the Revolution. Consequently he was made a marshal, or major general. In the service of Spain he had won a coloneley but intrigues had deprived him of this rank; the Revolution promoted him because of the vast





From the "Archivo del General Miranda"

# MAP OF THE ARGONNE FOREST.

The Argonne Forest has been of great strategic importance to the safety of France from the time of the French Revolution, when the action at Valmy checked the invasion of the allied armies of Prussia and Austria, to the World War, when the fierce fighting there, in which American soldiers played a heroic part in October 1918, contributed to bringing about the signing of the Armistice.



military, scientific, and artistic knowledge he had accumulated during nine years of travel through the United States, England and Europe.

On September 10 he had an interview with Dumouriez at Grand Pré, and on the 12th at the head of 2,000 Frenchmen, he repulsed an attack by 6,000 Prussians between Morthomme and Briquenay in the Argonne hills. Such was his début in the French Army. On the 15th, learning that 8,500 men camped at Mont-Charmont were in disorderly retreat, he galloped there and near Valmy was able to control the panic-stricken troops. The battle of Valmy took place on the 20th, and Dumouriez and Kellermann were victorious because Miranda had stopped the retreat. In recognition of this service the French and Syrian colonies in Venezuela erected a statue to the Precursor of South American Independence at Valmy in May 1930. Since Dumouriez found Miranda a valiant and well instructed officer, he recommended that he be promoted to lieutenant general, a rank which was conferred upon him by the Government on October 3.

Brissot and Pétion offered him the command of an expedition to Santo Domingo, but Miranda answered that it was not in his plans to stir up revolution in French colonies—only in Spanish ones. From his camp at Valenciennes he wrote to Pétion on October 26 recommending the representation of women in Parliament so that they might have a voice in matters which concerned them directly—marriage, divorce, and the education of their daughters. He was also an advocate of other advanced legislation.

On November 25 he was ordered by Dumouriez to relieve General Labourdonnaye from command of the troops which were besieging Antwerp. Despite the obstacles created by Pache, the Minister of War, he pushed the siege, forcing the commander of the fortress to parley. On November 30 the capitulation of Antwerp was signed, Miranda according military honors to the prisoners of war. This victory opened the Scheldt, formerly in control of the Austrians, to navigation, and as a reward Miranda was placed in command of the Army of the North, 22,000 men strong, previously under Labourdonnaye.

Here he added religious to political and military interests. In Belgium he issued posters ordering that the monasteries be turned into barracks, hospitals, and storehouses for the army, and that the income of the monastic communities be used to pay the soldiers. He believed the benevolent mission of the convents was ended with the French Revolution and that only the secular clergy should remain. Notwithstanding these opinions, the Bishop of Antwerp praised the revolutionist, greeting him as the philosopher who "*mores hominum multorum vidit et urbes.*"

Miranda continued his victories in the name of Liberty, and from the town of Roermond wrote the Governor of Antwerp to push the reconstruction of the forts and to give humane treatment to the

wounded and prisoners as prescribed in *The Rights of Man*. But at the very time that he was winning laurels the dislike of Pache and the envy of General Labourdonnaye created fresh obstacles in the path of the conqueror. While Dumouriez and Valence were in Paris, occupied by political intrigues, Miranda was ordered on January 5, 1793, to direct the operations about Maestricht and on the banks of the Meuse and the Roer. With enthusiasm and disciplined activity he supervised everything pertaining to the invasion of Belgium, meantime intercepting numerous letters from French émigrés announcing the arrival of Austrian and Prussian forces on the Rhine. About the middle of February the engineers made preparations for the siege of Maestricht, and Miranda was ordered to begin the bombardment. Knowing that Maestricht was well fortified and defended, he wrote on several occasions to Dumouriez, Pache, and Pétion that the enemy would break through the supporting lines and force him to stop the bombardment, but Dumouriez, who had an ambitious plan for the invasion of Holland, did not listen to his subordinate. So on March 2, while Miranda was bombarding Maestricht with red-hot balls, he was informed by Valence that the Austrians had crossed the Roer. Miranda suspended the bombardment and went to the assistance of Valence and Thowenot, who, defeated and dispirited, were in great need of his calm courage. From Maestricht and Liège, Miranda, Valence, and Lanoue succeeded in making a heroic retreat, saving the army and bringing it to Louvain, where they were able to make a stand against the enemy. Dumouriez was forced to abandon his hopeless invasion of Holland and on March 11 arrived at camp to take command of the vanquished but—thanks to Miranda—well-organized army.

Dumouriez was a defender of the Constitution of 1791, but with the King in prison he weakened, and once the monarch was beheaded he secretly turned against the convention. Miranda, who observed this fact, notified Pétion. In an interview between Dumouriez and Miranda the former came out against the Republic, while Miranda remained its defender.

In the face of this disagreement Dumouriez ordered Miranda to command the left wing in the battle of Neerwinden, March 18, 1793. The terrain was decidedly unfavorable for the attack, and the troops under Miranda's command inferior in number to those of the enemy. In the consequent defeat, Dumouriez blamed Miranda, who had fought personally, but had left on the field 30 officers and more than 2,000 men.

For the last time Miranda reorganized the vanquished forces and retreated to Louvain, from where Dumouriez had foolishly taken them to Neerwinden. On the 22d he repulsed the enemy at Pellemberg, holding his position through the day with a loss of 4,000

Frenchmen and 1,200 Austrians. That was his last battle as a French General of Division. Dumouriez began parleys with the Austrians and also had the Commissioners of the National Convention summon Miranda before its bar. He arrived in Paris on March 29 and immediately asked to be heard, but was refused and arrested at the Conciergerie. On April 19 he appeared before the Revolutionary Criminal Tribunal to defend himself against the three charges placed against him: the cessation of the bombardment of Maestricht, the retreat from Liège, and the defeat at Neerwinden.

About sixty witnesses for the defense and the prosecution testified before the tribunal during the trial, which lasted from May 12 to 16. The decision of the six jurors announced by Montané, the president of the tribunal, acquitted Miranda of all the accusations, ordered that he be freed, and that his name be expunged from the prison's register. Chauveau Lagarde, Miranda's advocate, proud of having defended him, stated that he had little to do, for the accused himself had refuted the most important charges.

He published his defense, full of eulogistic opinions of his client, and Miranda, accused as a soldier, became known as a philosopher, learned Encyclopedist, traveler in America and Europe, acquaintance of eminent men on both continents, and defender of liberty by nature and on principle. Miranda also published pamphlets in his own defense with documents proving how punctiliously he had proceeded at every point of the trial.

But if the "Sword of the Girondists" was honorably sheathed as Miranda left the tribunal, a free man, he fell in the overthrow on May 31 of that party by the Mountain, which decreed that its opponents were to be wiped out. Miranda was taken prisoner again July 9, 1793, and despite his appeals he remained in prison until January 1795. When he inquired the cause of his arrest, he was told that Robespierre and his followers gave "reasons of state", the irrefutable argument of every dictatorship for making injustice appear legal.

Miranda's friends rallied to his support. The authoritative voice of Quatremère de Quincy, the learned archaeologist, echoed through Europe. The fall of Robespierre on the 9th Thermidor—July 27, 1794—helped his cause.

After Miranda's release he began various literary labors. In July 1795 he wrote articles upholding the former boundaries of France and free fluvial navigation and censuring the bloody measures of the Revolution. He expounded constitutional principles based on the theory that man's useful activities increase in proportion to his liberty.

Miranda's views as a writer being based solely on his principles, he broke with the extremists and predicted peace. He opposed the spirit then inflaming the passions of Paris—eagerness for war and conquest. Therefore he was caught by the *coup d'état* of the 13th



Vendémiaire—October 5, 1795—and persecuted. Finally, however, persecution ceased and he could appear once more in public.

The triumphs of Bonaparte in Italy and the pillage of works of art led him to proclaim, together with Quatremère and the journalist Roederer, the inalienable rights of art, whose masterpieces should not be considered war booty, but the Directory held the opposite view. In the new political coup of the 18th Fructidor—September 4, 1796—which Bonaparte directed from Italy, Miranda once more fell under suspicion, and was again persecuted as head of the opposition.

He formed new political and amorous alliances. The Marquise de Custine, the Baroness de Stäel, the widow of Pétion, and other women appear in his papers, where their letters to the sophisticated philosopher are preserved. The persecuted Miranda laughed at political investigations and escaped from Paris in January 1798, in a disguise fashioned by Mme. Custine, to take refuge in England.

On the 18th Brumaire—November 9, 1799—the aspect of the Revolution changed, and Miranda sought to return to Paris. He wrote the First Consul, and notwithstanding the hatred which Minister Fouché had for him, he was permitted to enter France. On November 28, 1800, he arrived in Paris to claim his back pay as General and, as will be seen, to endeavor to enlist France in the cause of South American freedom.

Although he remained practically in hiding and was protected by Senator Lanjuinais, in March 1801 he was suspected of conspiring with the English against Bonaparte and imprisoned. To all interrogation he replied that he had only tried to persuade England to aid in securing South American independence, just as France had helped the United States, without expecting commercial monopolies or territorial concessions. With diplomatic skill he showed that South American emancipation would be advantageous to the French Government. But Fouché needed to get rid of the former Girondist and expelled him as a conspirator. In March 1801 he left France forever.

The third phase of his efforts for independence, which includes his negotiations, had been begun in New York in 1784. After he left the United States he traveled through Europe and in June 1789 returned to England. In February 1790 in Hollwood, near London, he interviewed William Pitt, then Prime Minister, taking advantage of the Nootka Sound (Vancouver, B.C.) incident between England and Spain.

To Pitt he presented his plan for South American emancipation, justified by the various uprisings from 1750 to 1781; the right to freedom, since the gift of Pope Alexander VI to Ferdinand and Isabella had been only a religious expedient; the advantage of reciprocal commerce with more than 20 colonies having 12,000,000 inhabitants, and of the opening to traffic of canals across Panama and Nicaragua,—



projects suggested to Miranda by the Schleswig Canal which he saw in 1788. These advantages were to be exchanged for well-equipped troops and vessels which Miranda himself would command. The plan was signed in Paris in December 1797 by Miranda and the Jesuits José del Pozo y Sucre and Manuel José de Salas, as representatives of South America.

Miranda continued to negotiate with Pitt and Lord Grenville, to whom he made it clear that he would never proceed against Spain in Europe, only in the Colonies. He had dealings, too, with Rufus King, the American Minister in London; he sent Caro to President Adams and then to New Granada with letters, and other commissioners to Venezuela, Peru, and Chile. In Venezuela Captain Gual and Chief Justice España, inspired by Miranda's projects, had already plotted a conspiracy, which was denounced in July 1797.

In 1798 Miranda made the acquaintance of young Bernardo O'Higgins, the future Emancipator of Chile, whom he inspired with the project of liberation, apparently on the point of success in 1799. Negotiations were broken off because of the treachery of the Frenchman Duperou and the Cuban Pedro José Caro. This bad luck was counterbalanced by the activities of Gual in Trinidad and the rehabilitation of Miranda in Madrid, which ended the persecution begun in 1782. He was declared deserving of the gratitude of the Government for meritorious services under Cagigal, who was also cleared of charges preferred against him.

By 1800 the plans for emancipation had almost fallen through, notwithstanding the fact that Pownall and other politicians ably interceded with Pitt. Downhearted but not defeated, Miranda looked to France, where he thought that Napoleon might welcome the undertaking, but the only result, as has been said, was exile. He returned to London in 1801 and reopened negotiations with Vansittart, the Secretary to the Treasury, with more success; he was also granted a larger annuity than he had enjoyed before.

Preparations for the expedition were therefore begun, under the direction of St. Vincent, First Lord of the Admiralty. The peace of Amiens in 1802, however, ruined these plans. Miranda did not relax his efforts, and, in the face of new European hostilities, began a new conspiracy.

With Vansittart, Home Popham, and Davison, a government contractor, he planned a rebellion in Argentina. Not until 1804 did he prepare with Lord Melville a memorandum for the expedition, which led Popham to Buenos Aires in 1806. But in 1805 the fall of Melville affected Pitt and, to an even greater degree, Miranda, who left London and arrived in New York in November 1805. There he interviewed King and Colonel Smith, who introduced him to Ogden, a merchant,

and to Commodore Lewis. Expeditionary preparations began in earnest.

Miranda talked with President Jefferson and Secretary Madison, who expressed their sympathy with the cause but did not give him official support. He received financial assistance from Ogden, Turnbull, and Vansittart, and the expedition left New York in February 1806 in the *Leander* with 200 volunteers, among them a son of Smith and grandson of ex-President Adams, who considered the expedition only a quixotic adventure.

It was on the high seas, aboard the *Leander*, that Miranda raised for the first time the Colombian colors, yellow, blue, and red, taken

MONUMENT IN MARACAY TO MEMBERS OF MIRANDA'S EXPEDITION.

This monument honors the 10 foreign members of the liberating expedition of Miranda who were captured and executed in 1806 after the vessels *Bee* and *Bacchus* were taken by the Spaniards. All except a Pole and a Portuguese were from the United States, according to a member of the expedition.



perhaps from the flag of the "Guard of the Burgesses" whose maneuvers he had watched in 1788 at Altona, a suburb of Hamburg.

Information sent by Casa Irujo, the Spanish Minister at Washington, had warned Venezuela of the proposed invasion, and therefore when Miranda arrived at Ocumare in April 1806 he was received with hostility. The small vessels *Bacchus* and *Bee*, which Miranda had acquired en route, were taken and with them 58 prisoners, 10<sup>1</sup> of whom were executed in Puerto Cabello and their remains hung along the highways as a warning to conspirators. The other 48 were sent away for imprisonment. Miranda hastily sailed for Bonaire, Grenada, Barbados, and Trinidad, where he recovered from the disaster at Ocumare.

<sup>1</sup> 8 Americans, 1 Pole, and 1 Portuguese, according to a member of the expedition. EDITOR.



THE SIGNING OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE OF VENEZUELA, AUGUST 17, 1811.

On July 5, 1811, the Congress of Venezuela declared the independence of their country. This document was presented to the Congress on July 7 by the committee appointed to prepare it, and printed on July 11 in the official publication of the body. In Venezuela, as in the United States, the declaration was not signed until more than a month after it had been adopted. Miranda, in the uniform of a general of the French Revolution, is seen in the foreground leaning on his sword.



In August 1806 he again landed in Venezuela; at Coro, as Chief of the Expeditionary Forces of Colombia, he issued his proclamation to the Colombian nations. (*Colombeia* is the title given to the 63 volumes of his papers, so called in honor of Christopher Columbus.) In the frightened city he found neither friends nor foes; it was indifference that foiled the expedition. Venezuela did not heed the call of the emancipator, for the Government, concurring with the French, accused him of being an English emissary.

Miranda, who was not a military chieftain in the narrow sense of the word, had based his hopes on his revolutionary labors of twenty-five years, and believed, not without reason, that Venezuela was eagerly awaiting him. The chieftain, pure and simple, makes no preparations and pins all his hopes on his strong right arm: action is his only means to the desired end.

But the expeditions of Miranda had world-wide echoes: politicians in Washington discussed it in their debates, and in London, Paris, and Spain others upheld it, made accusations against it, and outlawed it, respectively. All South America was in a ferment. In Argentina the Government protested against the "traitor Miranda, a perfidious, deceitful, and irreligious man", and in February 1807 Lima followed that example.

Miranda failed in military operations but not in his political aspirations, for, with the help of English and Americans, he had made a start toward realizing his revolutionary ideals, and South America was rising in rebellion.

In the midst of the Venezuelan fiasco, Miranda received word from his friend Popham of the taking of Buenos Aires in July 1806. That presently the English were overthrown made little difference, for an example had been set. The Argentinians had learned that the Spanish Government could be defeated.

In April 1807 Miranda sent other plans for invasion to Popham. For the Venezuelan was never disheartened by setbacks to an enterprise! He wrote to England that he was prepared to solicit aid from Russia, Tartary, and even Turkey for the liberation of America.

He returned to London in January 1808, and presented new plans of insurrection, supported by the writings of William Burke, to Canning and Lord Castlereagh, members of the Cabinet.

(It was probably about the same time that he legitimated his two small sons, Leander and Francisco, the children of Sara Andrews, an English Jewess. Leander later went to Bogotá and in 1826 supported the Colombian Constitution against the dictatorship of Bolívar. In 1840 he married Teresa Dalla Costa in Caracas, and their descendents live today in Florence, Italy. Francisco was shot in 1831, at the age of 25, in Cerinza, New Granada, where in an ill-starred moment he was defending the dictatorship of Urdaneta.)



In the same year, 1808, Sir Arthur Wellesley, the future Duke of Wellington, was preparing an expedition which, it was thought, was to further Miranda's plans. About then Padilla, commissioned by Rodríguez Peña, arrived in London with other Argentinian revolutionaries. Miranda reported their arrival to the English ministers, to whom he explained that the defeats of Popham in Buenos Aires and of Beresford in Montevideo were due to the fact that the Englishmen had acted like conquerors and not like emancipators.

In April he sent word to Rodríguez Peña that the latter could count on English troops, and asked him to maintain, in the meantime, the spirit of rebellion and emancipation and to refuse the intervention of other foreign powers. But events in Europe upset these plans, because Wellesley left to help Portugal and Spain against the Napoleonic invasion. The Precursor vented his anger in protests to Wellesley, on realizing that he served the English Government only as an excuse for temporizing with Spain or intimidating it.

So Miranda turned to inciting insurrection in Venezuela, New Granada, and Peru through the Marqués del Toro, Antonio Nariño, Pedro Fermín de Vargas, Antepara, and other revolutionaries, telling them that since England and France were fighting in the Peninsula, they should profit by the opportunity to win absolute independence. For that reason the French agents, sent by Napoleon to obtain the support of the colonies for his brother Joseph as King of Spain, failed in Caracas.

Early in 1810 appeared the first issue of *El Colombiano*, a revolutionary periodical which Miranda was editing in London. Although only five numbers were published, the journal was influential in disseminating the seeds of the revolution.

The imprisonment of Fernando VII by Napoleon gave Caracas an excuse to proclaim its autonomy, which was done on April 19, 1810. Immediately the Junta sent a commission, composed of Simón Bolívar, Luis López Méndez, and Andrés Bello, to London. These compatriots were received by Miranda, and allowed by the English Government to present their cause, but with little result. When it was over, Bolívar returned to Venezuela, carrying with him Miranda's valuable papers at the latter's request.

In December 1810 Miranda arrived in Caracas where, in spite of the misgivings of some members of the Supreme Council, he was enthusiastically received. He was elected to the Constituent Congress of 1811, and realized his revolutionary ideal when he signed the Venezuelan Declaration of Independence, proclaimed on July 5 of that year. The former Girondist expounded his principles of liberty brilliantly both in Congress and in the Patriotic Society, an organization created for economic ends and converted by him into a revolutionary club after the French fashion.

But in 1812 the Venezuelan royalists rose against the Republican Government. Capt. Domingo Monteverde of the Spanish Navy left Coro in March with 250 men, and treason and the earthquake of March 26 cooperated in his favor.

In view of these unforeseen difficulties, Miranda was named Dictator and Commander in Chief and given extraordinary powers. But a fatal discouragement took possession of the leader who, temperamentally unfitted for such absolute authority, did not know how to use it and failed lamentably in the exercise of his powers. He made a half-hearted attack against Monteverde, but the latter hastened to take Puerto Cabello, defeating on July 5 its defender, Col. Simón Bolívar, who was betrayed by Rafael Hermoso and his companions. News of the defeat entirely disheartened Miranda, who decided, at a meeting of officers, to surrender to Monteverde. The surrender signed on July 25 was his political will and testament, for there his active life ended.

Destiny, favoring his memory, preserved his papers in London, whence they returned in triumph to Venezuela in 1927. Bolívar, his favorite follower, after cruelly wounding the apostle of independence, later realized by sword, blood, and fire the ideals of the Precursor.

From fortresses in Puerto Cabello and Puerto Rico Miranda addressed the Audiencia at Caracas and the Spanish courts in 1813, asking only the liberty of his compatriots who had been taken prisoner by Monteverde for, in the greatness of his soul, he disregarded his own suffering.

From La Carraca at Cadiz, the perennial conspirator, as he might be called, was on the point of escaping in March 1816, when a serious illness prevented. And on the morning of July 14 of the same year he lay at the point of death; at the exhortation of a Catholic priest, the philosopher evinced himself in his calm reply: "Let me die in peace."



# FRANCISCO DE MIRANDA IN THE UNITED STATES

By A. CURTIS WILGUS

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MOST of the world's great patriots die in the land of their birth and are buried with great ceremony. Their memory is perpetuated by an elaborate tomb and innumerable monuments. But in the case of Francisco de Miranda, a man of the world, who visited many parts of it during a full life and who knew many of its greatest men and women, this is not true. His death was premature and occurred in a country which contained many enemies and so few influential friends that his body could not be given proper burial. Thus his resting place in Spain is unknown, but in another land, his mother country, there is ready and waiting for the earthly remains of this wandering son a fitting tomb which is a symbol and a perpetual remembrance in marble of the fact that the great Precursor was indeed a man of many countries.

The very ubiquitousness of Miranda's existence is indicative of his world importance. Wherever he went he affected in a profound manner all men and women with whom he came into contact. His insatiable thirst for knowledge, his enthusiasm, his energy, his restless pursuit of an idea gave to his character a personal magnetism that few others have possessed. Perhaps nowhere were people more affected by his enthusiasm and idealism than in the United States, which he visited twice, from June 10, 1783, to December 15, 1784, and from November 9, 1805, to February 2, 1806.<sup>1</sup>

## I

While in the United States Miranda met nearly everyone of prominence and many of his friends and acquaintances recorded their impressions of the subsequent hero who was 33 years of age when he first reached our shores.

In South Carolina the Englishman Turnbull spoke of him as an "intelligent traveler" and a "learned stranger." Dr. David Ramsay

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<sup>1</sup> For much information contained in this article I am indebted to the following works: *Diary of Francisco de Miranda 1783-84*, edited by W. S. Robertson; the two volume *Life of Miranda*, by W. S. Robertson; *Fragments from an XVIIIth Century Diary . . .*, edited by J. H. Stabler; and *La Gran Reunión Americana*, an unpublished thesis in the library of the George Washington University, written by Herbert Angell.

of Charleston wrote of him: "He loves liberty with an ardor that would do honor to the freest State in the world", and he added that he had been "respectfully noticed by the best people of this Metropolis" which, then as now, was no small recognition. Tom Paine, after meeting Miranda, wrote that "he is a man of talents and enterprise." Col. William Duer, who met the Venezuelan at New York, recorded that "from disposition and reflection" Miranda was a "citizen of the world which he traverses with a view of increasing a stock of knowledge which is already far from being inconsiderable." Gen. Henry Knox spoke of his friend as "an enthusiast in the cause of liberty" with an "extensive knowledge of men and things." President Stiles of Yale College thought Miranda "a learned man and a flaming son of liberty." John Adams believed that Miranda "knew more of every campaign, siege, battle, and skirmish that had ever occurred in the whole war [of Independence] than any officer in our Army or any statesman in our councils." He also once considered Miranda "either an Achilles" or "a knight errant." Col. William S. Smith was highly impressed with the man from the south, whom he called "a friend to the rights of mankind and the happiness of society." Timothy Pickering presented Miranda to a friend as a person of "uncommon talents and rare acquirements." Aaron Burr, who met Miranda on his second visit to the United States, admired his "social talents and colloquial eloquence." Richard Rush wrote to James Madison that Miranda was "a believer in the practicability of governments that shall have for their objects the happiness of nations, instead of the greatness of individuals."

## II

Miranda too was affected by the persons whom he met and by the things which he saw in this country. He was so inspired, he wrote later, that in the year 1784 while in New York City he "formed a project for the liberty and independence of the entire Spanish American continent with the cooperation of England." However, like all travelers he was not always favorably impressed with things in the United States.<sup>2</sup> He felt, for example, while in North Carolina on his first sojourn, that the social organization was rather primitive. At the same time, however, he was impressed with the democratic spirit of a southern barbecue. This same spirit he discovered later in the North where he found it difficult at taverns to avoid eating at the same table with his servant. The Carolinas were beautiful but the

<sup>2</sup> Miranda's itinerary on his first visit to the United States included the following places: Newbern, Beaufort, Cape Fear, and Wilmington, N.C.; Georgetown, Charleston, and Lamar, S.C.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Wilmington, Tappan, and Passaic Falls, N.J.; New York City, Long Island, West Point, Stoney Point, Albany, Saratoga, and Shelter Island, N.Y.; New Haven, Wethersfield, Windsor, Middletown, and New London, Conn.; Springfield, Boston, Newburyport, and Salem, Mass.; Portsmouth, N.H.; and Newport and Providence, R.I.



frogs and mosquitoes were dreadful. In Northern New York in the month of May he saw many similarities between the aspects of nature there and in Cuba. Rhode Island in August he called a "paradise."

The Venezuelan was highly critical of and often amused at religious practices in the United States, particularly at the Puritan Sabbath, the Blue Laws, the narrow sectarianism, the public confession of sins, the adult baptism, etc. At Charleston, S.C., Miranda was forced to apologize for playing his flute on Sunday. Yet he seems to have gained a belief in religious toleration while here and he remained firm in his belief that the church should not interfere in politics as was so often the case in New England. Everywhere he went he was immensely interested in cemeteries and tombstones and the history and genealogies which they told.

In Boston Miranda visited the Massachusetts State Legislature where he viewed "the defects and inconveniences which this democracy suffers in the hands of ignorant men." In such democratic assemblies "the most absurd and unjust measures have been proposed, debated and approved throughout this continent." He believed that New Englanders were too much interested in trade, for commerce will always be the principal ruination of democratic virtue. Some of these views he expressed in Boston to Samuel Adams, who on many matters agreed with Miranda. At Harvard College he was disgusted with the natural history museum, with the scant food served to the students, and with the narrowness of the curriculum. But despite the defects of life in New England all persons seemed happier than did the people of his native land.

Miranda's comments concerning women in the United States are interesting. "The ladies (particularly the married ones) keep a monastic seclusion, and such a submission to their husbands as I have never before seen." After women marry, the first year "they pose as lovers, the second as mothers, and the third and the rest of their lives as housekeepers." "On the contrary, the unmarried girls have every liberty and go alone to walk wherever they wish without any criticism." In Boston, particularly, the unmarried girls, so Miranda confided to his diary, "have a fancy for themselves which I have never seen equaled."

The men he seemed to like generally, although some chewed tobacco to such an extent that "several told me that they cannot go to bed and to sleep without a quid in their mouths." One man at Charleston challenged him to a duel for a supposed discourtesy in the West Indies, but Miranda handled this affair diplomatically and with dignity without fighting. Many of the younger men in the South, especially, Miranda considered "vain and ignorant."

Wherever Miranda went he never missed an opportunity to inspect forts and fortifications and to admire or criticise their layout, discussing the military strategy of the campaigns in the neighborhood. He also was greatly interested in ordnance and munition manufacture.

He liked Philadelphia because it was a "beautiful, free, and commercial city" and because of its general cleanliness and its excellent hotel accommodations. It was there that the visitor first saw and met George Washington. But on the whole Miranda was not as

COL. WILLIAM STE-  
PHENS SMITH, BY  
GILBERT STUART.

Colonel Smith, a close friend of Miranda ever since their acquaintance in the United States, was secretary of the American legation in London under his father-in-law John Adams when Miranda arrived in the English capital from Boston. In August 1785 the two young men traveled together through Holland, Germany, and Austria. Miranda's papers contain a copy of Colonel Smith's diary for that period, which gives an interesting account of the incidents of the journey. The friendship between the two men was maintained by correspondence, and when in 1806 Miranda was preparing his expedition for liberating Venezuela, Colonel Smith, then surveyor of the port of New York, helped to recruit men to accompany him.



Courtesy of H. L. Pratt

favorably impressed with the general as some of his friends could have wished. Washington's entrance into the City of Brotherly Love was to Miranda like the "Redeemer entering Jerusalem." At a luncheon which the Venezuelan attended he recorded that Washington's "bearing is circumspect, taciturn, and but little expressive, even though a suave manner and great reserve make dealing with him supportable." And he added: "I never saw him except with this aspect; nevertheless when the bottle was passed with joviality and humor after dinner, and when he had drunk a certain number of toasts, he stood up

and gave his three cheers like the rest of us. Under these conditions it is not easy to form a definite opinion as to his character, and here we will suspend judgment for the present until changes or passage of time make it possible to form a more careful opinion."

In New York State Miranda considered Long Island the "Hesperia of America." It was while in New York City that Miranda met Col. W. S. Smith who was to prove such a helpful friend upon his second visit to the country. Also at this time he conversed with Tom Paine, and discussed with Alexander Hamilton and Henry Knox plans for freeing South America from Spain. Upon these conversations the Precursor was later to base, in part at least, his feeling that the United States was in sympathy with his project and would render assistance when needed. To win this aid was the chief reason for his return to the United States.<sup>3</sup> While in New York Miranda also met Von Steuben who gave the Venezuelan valuable information concerning troop organization and discipline.

In Boston the Patriot saw and met LaFayette who had just arrived for a visit. Miranda ridiculed the "excessive and absurd demonstrations of pleasure" shown by the American people when they saw the Marquis, who he concluded was a "mediocre character" endowed with the "activity and perpetual motion of a Frenchman." Shortly after this Miranda left the United States, not to return again until 1805.

### III

During the years which intervened between his American visits Miranda improved his experiences by traveling widely in Europe and by meeting all persons worth knowing. He took part in the French Revolution and finally settled in London where, at 27 Grafton Street, he made his home, entertaining and visiting with notables from England, the Continent, Spanish America, and the United States. It was there that Miranda created the *Gran Reunión Americana*, a secret organization somewhat like the Masonic order which aimed to assist in the revolutionizing of South America. But unfortunately for the Venezuelan his plans collapsed one after the other, due in part to the change in English foreign policy and in part to the machinations of his powerful enemies who put a price on his head. At last Miranda determined to go once more to the United States and take advantage of the earlier apparent enthusiasm for his cause shown by Knox, Smith, Hamilton, and others. He was hastened somewhat in this decision because of reports of critical diplomatic friction developing between Spain and the United States.

<sup>3</sup> The original plan formulated in 1784 provided that 5,000 soldiers be raised in New England for the liberation of Spanish America. They were to enlist for 5 years and were to be paid a bounty of \$50 each and \$60 per month during service. All supplies for such a force were to be collected in advance. General Knox was one of the prime movers behind this scheme in the United States.

## IV

On November 9, 1805, Miranda landed at New York City, and immediately renewed his contact with Rufus King, with whom he had been intimate in England, and also with Colonel Smith, who had recently become surveyor of the port of New York. He also corresponded with Knox, reminding him of their earlier relations and plans. From New York Miranda went to Philadelphia where he met the discredited Aaron Burr whom he considered both "detestable" and "infamous." There Richard Rush gave Miranda an introduction to Secretary of State James Madison.

At Washington, which Miranda reached the first week in December, he met President Thomas Jefferson. Madison there assured Miranda that the President and the Government looked favorably upon his project but could render no assistance in the freeing of the colonies of Spain. Failing to win actual and open assistance at Washington Miranda returned to New York at the end of December, where he prepared with the assistance of Knox, Smith, Ogden, and others an expedition to his native land. On February 2, 1806, the *Leander* with munitions and some 200 recruits left the harbor secretly for the West Indies. Miranda was sailing for the last time from the shores of the United States.

## V

As one contemplates the life of this great Precursor of Venezuelan independence one comes to feel more and more that one of his compatriots indeed spoke the truth when he asserted that Miranda was more than a man—he was an idea. Like Simón Bolívar he was a versatile and restless genius, a man of the world and at home anywhere in it. Within himself he contained the likeness of many men. He was a Voltaire, a Paine, a John Adams, a Garibaldi. Few men have been so readily adaptable to so many situations as Francisco de Miranda.







MONUMENT TO MIRANDA IN THE NATIONAL PANTHEON IN CARACAS.

Although the resting place of the Precursor is still unknown, this marble monument and tomb stand in the national patriotic shrine of Venezuela.

# THE MIRANDA ARCHIVES

By BEATRICE NEWHALL

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AMONG the most highly valued treasures of Venezuela are 63 volumes, varying somewhat in height and thickness, all bearing on the back the title *Colombeia*, a subtitle indicating the nature of the contents, and the years covered. These precious tomes are the widely traveled archives of Francisco de Miranda; their odyssey, begun in the Caribbean, continued from south to north in the United States, across the Atlantic, throughout Europe from Holland to Constantinople, from Kherson to St. Petersburg over frozen steppes, from Stockholm to Genoa, back and forth between France and England, across the ocean again to New York and down to the shores of Venezuela, and four more times over the Atlantic. All of the archives shared to a greater or a less degree in these wanderings. Since their acquisition by the Government in 1926, they have been entrusted to the National Academy of History for safekeeping and editing. Publication of the archives has already been begun under the competent direction of Dr. Vicente Dávila, and 13 volumes have appeared, containing the travel diaries, miscellaneous correspondence and documents, and material dealing with the French Revolution.

General Miranda, one of the most colorful and widely discussed characters of his time, was presented to history for more than a century after his death in a series of partial portraits painted from fragmentary information gathered from widely scattered sources, with much of the canvas avowedly filled in by conjecture. Many of the documents on which such pictures were based show the Precursor through the eyes of his sometimes prejudiced contemporaries, while such of his letters as had been preserved in the papers of correspondents were open to misinterpretation because the background was often incomplete. There has been no doubt that Miranda influenced, in Europe and America, the fortunes of Spanish America, but the amount, value, and disinterestedness of that influence has been hotly disputed. The accounts of the nearly 40 years, from his flight from Habana in 1783 to his capture at La Guaira in 1812, have been liberally sprinkled with such words and phrases as "perhaps", "probably", "it seems possible", "it may be inferred", "it was doubtless true."

Yet from contemporary sources historians had known that Miranda possessed and kept with him a constantly increasing store of docu-

ments: the Spanish minister would have liked to obtain or destroy the three trunksful of maps, plans, memoirs, and correspondence which Miranda had in London in 1785; Miranda's second arrest in Paris in 1793 was followed by the sealing of his voluminous papers for examination by the authorities; in the introduction to a book entitled *South American Emancipation* . . . the editor, J. M. Antepara, stated that the private archives of Miranda contained 60 volumes; and on the eve of his capture in 1812 Miranda personally took on board the *Sapphire*, the English vessel on which he planned to sail, his papers and other valuables.

Before leaving London for the last time, Miranda had his papers bound in 64 volumes, of which one (no. 58) has been lost. These were entitled "*Colombeia*", Colombia being the name he had chosen for free Spanish America, and the material was roughly classified as travels, French Revolution, and negotiations. When he was arranging his second return to Venezuela, he entrusted them to his fellow Venezuelan, Simón Bolívar, who sailed shortly before him (September 1810) on the British vessel *Sapphire*.

On July 31, 1812, the precious papers sailed out of La Guaira without their owner and disappeared as completely as they had earlier in England when Miranda himself secreted them from prying eyes while he was to be abroad. The Venezuelan historian, José María Rojas, wrote of them, "Among these books [of Miranda] there arrived at Venezuela and were exported to England after the catastrophe of 1812, 26 manuscript volumes dealing with the travels of Miranda, 18 referring to the French Revolution, and an equal number containing all the negotiations undertaken by the general. Of the many misfortunes which happened to this remarkable man, not the least tragic is that the rich treasure of his intelligence and of the efforts which he made during more than 20 years should be lost. All these manuscripts were seen in London and surely still exist there."<sup>1</sup>

These papers were described by Miranda himself in his will, made in 1805, just before he sailed in his early, abortive attempt at American liberation: "I likewise leave in the city of London in England my papers, official correspondence with ministers and generals of France at the time when I commanded the armies of said Republic; and also various MSS which contain my travels and investigations in America, Europe, Asia, and Africa with the object of seeking the best form and system of government for the establishment of a wise and judicious liberty in the H[ispano]-American colonies; these are, to my mind, the countries best situated and the nations best fitted for it, among all that I have known—these [MSS] are locked and sealed in 30 paste-board boxes (plus one leather portfolio which is in the keeping of Mr. Clerisseau in Paris). Likewise my correspondence and negotiations

<sup>1</sup> "El General Miranda", Librería de Garnier Hermanos, Paris, 1884, p. xxx.



with the ministers of His B[ritannic] M[ajesty] from the year 1790 until the present day, about the absolute independence of and the establishment of liberty in all the H[ispano]-American continent—on the same terms that France helped with the United States of America.” In 1810 the following notation was added: “(Just sent to Caracas with D. Simón de Bolívar in 62 folio volumes).”<sup>2</sup>

Miranda appointed two of his English friends as executors of his estate, and indicated his hope for the ultimate course of history in South America by the following provision: “All the papers and MSS which I have mentioned shall be sent to the city of Caracas (in case the country becomes independent or freedom of trade opens the ports of the Province to other nations—for otherwise it would be the same as sending them to Madrid) to my relatives or to the Cabildo and Ayuntamiento, in order that, in the archives of the city, they may testify to the nation the sincere love of one of its faithful citizens—and the constant efforts which I have made for the public welfare of my beloved compatriots.”<sup>3</sup>

It is only within the last ten years, with the rediscovery of the archives, that their history since that historic July 31 has come to light.

The *Sapphire* returned to Curaçao after sailing from La Guaira without Miranda, and there his belongings, with those of other refugee compatriots, were detained by the customs officers. The Spanish Government put in a claim for the specie and silver plate which was among the baggage, and the Governor of Curaçao, perhaps realizing that the three trunks whose contents were of no intrinsic worth might, if they fell into the wrong hands, cause no little embarrassment to the English Government, wrote to Lord Bathurst, Secretary for War and the Colonies, for instructions as to their disposal. Pursuant to the directions received, he sent the precious documents to England via Jamaica in charge of a Colonel Douglass of the Fifty-fifth Regiment, in the *Sapphire*—the third time they had been embarked on that vessel, and the second time they made the transatlantic trip with her. Because of the confidential character of the papers, the boxes were transmitted to Lord Bathurst unopened, even by customs officials. How long the archives remained in the custody of the Secretary for War and the Colonies is not known, but it is evident that when Lord Bathurst retired, if not before, he took the papers with him, either to prevent their falling into the possession of those who might still embarrass the Government or private individuals by an indiscreet use

<sup>2</sup> “Archivo del General Miranda,” Caracas, 1929-, vol. VII, p. 136; “The Diary of Francisco de Miranda,” edited by William Spence Robertson, New York, Hispanic Society of America, 1928; the facsimile, reproduced opposite p. xx, of the copy in the records of the Prerogative Court of Canterbury, Somerset House, London, has the 1810 addition.

<sup>3</sup> “Archivo,” vol. VII, p. 137.



of the materials therein, or because such a procedure was, apparently, a not uncommon practice of the times.

In 1922 the American historian William Spence Robertson, who had published in 1907 a carefully documented study entitled *Francisco de Miranda and the Revolutionizing of Spanish America*, heard that some Miranda papers were said to be among the possessions of the then Earl Bathurst. That summer he was permitted to examine the Miranda manuscripts in the Bathurst library, and at once recognized them as the long-lost volumes for which historians had been searching for so many years. The news reached Dr. C. Parra-Pérez, a Venezuelan diplomat then in Europe, who immediately got into touch with Earl Bathurst on behalf of his Government. Negotiations for the purchase of the archives were satisfactorily concluded, and in 1926 the papers made their last transatlantic voyage to be deposited, as their owner had wished, in his native city of Caracas.

A man who had had so varied and colorful a career, who was interested in all phases of human activity, from art to prison reform, who had known personally the great and the near great of his time in republics, kingdoms, and empires, who had never ceased to cherish the faith that he was born to direct the liberation of his native continent from European domination, and who therefore planned, plotted, and intrigued in one country and another as chances for support seemed to warrant, was naturally a romantic figure both to his contemporaries and to later generations, but also a figure about whom facts and motives are less easily obtainable from the usual historical sources and, when found, are apt to be distorted. A man whom the Spanish Government tried in vain for nearly 30 years to arrest and about whose status France and England were more than once uneasy, naturally kept his intimate affairs, personal and diplomatic, from becoming generally known. For that reason the recovery of the papers he accumulated over a period of 40 years has made it necessary to rewrite much of the history of the man and his career, beginning with his very name and the date of his birth.

For, in spite of his need for secrecy, Miranda had the collecting instincts of a magpie, and all was grist that came to his mill. He began his collection with the personal papers necessary for leaving the country and studying in Spain and with the diary begun on the voyage to that country in January 1771. The first four volumes as he had them bound contain the material he gathered and kept during his career in the Spanish Army—bits of diary (sometimes fragmentary, sometimes more detailed, as during the siege of Melilla) and acute observations on places seen or visited; letters and documents pertaining to his service; and calling cards, maps, newspaper clippings, and drawings.

While the famous archives may have had their inception in the youthful urge for treasuring keepsakes, the difficulties which the Venezuelan found in the path of ambitious Creoles in Spain may have been the reason why he continued to guard correspondence and other papers relating to his military career. That he felt himself the unjustified target of attacks may be judged from the following letter to Miranda from Count de O'Reilly, Inspector General, and Miranda's comment thereon: "You have failed to observe the provision in the royal ordinances that officers should not wear any article of clothing not part of the regulation uniform, paying no attention to the warning I gave you a few days ago on this subject; and the fact that there is no graver charge than that of not observing regulations and obeying commands, was the cause of your arrest in this castle. God keep you many years. (Signed) Count de O'Reilly. Puerto de Santa María, July 26, 1777." "Few arrests were probably ever made with more fuss . . . so that nearly every one suspected a touch of the Inquisition in the affair; but then we learn that a waistcoat of cotton cloth, instead of another of wool, which the officer wore on a walk which he was accustomed to take early in the morning, and which was not observed by the Sergeant Major and other officers of the regiment who were with him, but which the Señor Conde spied from Puerto de Santa María, was the cause of this imprisonment. . . . The pretext was not at all bad for revealing the *healthy* intentions motivating the Señor Inspector General."<sup>4</sup>

The other 59 volumes of the archives contain the material he gathered during the 37 years beginning in June 1783, when he set sail from Habana for the United States, after he had decided to leave the service of Spain and work for the independence of Spanish America. The volumes dealing with his travels in the United States are particularly interesting to Americans, for interspersed with the sections of his diary, which gives pen portraits of the leading statesmen of the new Republic, are such varied material as pamphlets containing considerations on the Order of the Cincinnati, Dr. Ramsay's oration on American independence, proceedings respecting Major André, the laws of Yale College, a short account of the people called Quakers, regulations for the troops of the United States, and brief hints of a religious scheme; calling cards, including one from General Washington; invitations to dinners and balls; copies of letters of introduction; and accounts and receipts.

The contents of the other volumes are similar, varying only with the circumstances. From time to time he itemized the books which he had sent from one place to another, giving an idea of the excellent library which he had collected. In Habana in February 1783, for

<sup>4</sup> "Archivo," vol. IV, p. 356.

example, it contained among the English volumes, Burke *On the Sublime*, Dryden's *Miscellanies* and *Virgil*, Josephus' *History of the Jews*, the works of Young, Shakespeare, Swift, Pope, and Plato, the letters of Chesterfield, Sterne, and Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, essays by Locke, *The Tatler* and *The Spectator*, *Tristram Shandy*, *A Sentimental Journey*, *Hudibras*, Plutarch's *Lives*, Smith's *Theory of Moral Sentiment* and *Wealth of Nations*, Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, and Robertson's *History of America*.<sup>5</sup> Other lists contain books in French and Italian dealing with literature, political science, art and architecture, and travel. Throughout the archives are many references to books that he had lent to friends and acquaintances. At the time of his death the library counted some 6,000 volumes, and while most of it was dispersed by auction, the classics were bequeathed to the University of Caracas.

The publication of the remaining material, much of which is unedited, relative to negotiations for liberating Hispanic America, is eagerly awaited by historians in the Americas and Europe. Not only will the Miranda documents explain and clarify matters touched upon in papers scattered through state and personal archives in many nations, but they may require that chapter of the history of the American continent to be rewritten.

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<sup>5</sup> "Archivo," vol. VII, pp. 161 ff.





# THE MANY-SIDED MIRANDA

## A FEW GLIMPSES OF HIS AMERICAN AND ENGLISH CONNECTIONS

### I. A PORTRAIT<sup>1</sup>

. . . He is about five feet ten inches high. His limbs are well proportioned; his whole frame is stout and active. His complexion is dark, florid and healthy. His eyes are hazel coloured, but not of the darkest hue. They are piercing, quick and intelligent, expressing more of the severe than the mild feelings. He has good teeth, which he takes much care to keep clean. His nose is large and handsome, rather of the English than Roman cast. His chest is square and prominent. His hair is gray and he wears it tied long behind with powder. He has strong gray whiskers growing on the outer edges of his ears, as large as most Spaniards have on their cheeks. In the contour of his visage you plainly perceive an expression of pertinaciousness and suspicion. Upon the whole without saying he is an elegant, we may pronounce him a handsome man. . . . When sitting he is never perfectly still; his foot or hand must be moving to keep time with his mind which is always in exercise. He always sleeps a few moments after dinner, and then walks till bed time, which with him is about midnight. He is an eminent example of temperance. A scanty or bad meal is never regarded by him as a subject of complaint. He uses no ardent spirits; seldom any wine. Sweetened water is his common beverage. Sweetness and warmth, says he, are the two greatest physical goods; and acid and cold are the greatest physical evils in the universe.

He is a courtier and gentleman in his manners. Dignity and grace preside in his movements. Unless when angry, he has a great command of his feelings; and can assume what looks and tones he pleases. In general his demeanour is marked by hauteur and distance. When he is angry he loses discretion. He is impatient of contradiction. In discourse he is logical in the management of his thoughts. He appears conversant on all subjects. His iron memory prevents his ever being at a loss for names, dates and authorities.

He used his mental resources and colloquial powers with great address to recommend himself to his followers. He assumed the manners of a father and instructor to the young men. He spoke of the prospect of success, and of the preparations made for him with great confidence. The glory and advantages of the enterprise were

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<sup>1</sup> [Biggs, James] "The history of Don Francisco de Miranda's attempt to effect a revolution in South America . . . in a series of letters by a gentleman who was an officer under that general to his friend in the United States." Boston, 1810, p. 288ff.



described in glowing colours. At another time he detailed his travels, his sufferings and escapes in a manner to interest both their admiration and sympathy. He appeared the master of languages, of science and literature. In his conversations he carried his hearers to the scenes of great actions and introduced them to the distinguished characters of every age. He took excursions to Troy, Babylon, Jerusalem, Rome, Athens and Syracuse. Men famed as statesmen, heroes, patriots, conquerors and tyrants, priests and scholars he produced, and weighed their merits and defects. Modern history and biography afforded him abundant topicks. He impressed an opinion of his comprehensive views, his inexhaustible fund of learning; his probity, his generosity and patriotism. After all, this man of renown, I fear, must be considered as having more learning than wisdom; more theoretical knowledge than practical talent; too sanguine and too opinionated to distinguish between the vigour of enterprise and the hardness of infatuation.

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## II. ENGLISH CONNECTIONS

Dear Sir <sup>2</sup>

You judge right of & do justice to my feelings & sentiments towards yourself, & to my anxious wishes for the succes of your right true patriotic proposals. If it pleases the Great Overuling Energy, that an event so good & productive of hapiness to mankind shall *now* come forward into the System of things; fear not, it certainly will: But more feel yourself animated with that divine (I will call it) Fanaticism, which all Great Instruments of good to mankind ever have been, & ever must be. If it is not now to come forward in the present course of the System—it will not—But while you, as a man, feeling yourself capable of becoming an instrument to work this purpose, have taken all human means, to sett the spring in motion, take to yourself this best of all comforts, that you done your Duty, with this preface I will without disguise or reserve give you that advice, which you ask of me. It is this. . . .

I cannot finish this letter without saying that at the same time that I fear to see the flattering prospect we had in View, crossed by a cold dark blast—I can get raise to my mind's Eye another prospect of better hopes; & fancy that I see it coming forward into the horizon of affairs—When I place myself on the Shores of Kamscatsky I can almost streach forth a hand of friendly assistance to Mexico so as to touch any beginning of efforts towards Emancipation. & with this hope I will say—*melioribus utere Fatis*.—God bless you. Lett hear of the issue of your final effort—I am truly your friend.

[London, 1790?]

*T. Pownall.*

T. XVIII, f. 178.

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<sup>2</sup> "Archivo del General Miranda," Caracas, 1929 —, vol. VI, p. 44.

My Dear Sir<sup>3</sup>

I have procured a Letter for M<sup>r</sup>. Herschell, requesting him to shew us his Telescopes & Apparatus. & M<sup>r</sup>. Baynes & Family desire their best Comp<sup>ts</sup>. to you, & to assure you that it will give them much Pleasure to see you at Herefield. M<sup>r</sup>. Herschell's Observatory is at Slough, about 22 miles from London, & about eight miles from Harefield. We therefore propose to sleep at Slough on Friday night, so as to have an opportunity of seeing thro' the Telescopes the moon & stars—M<sup>rs</sup>. Turnbull, the nurse & child, will go in the chariot & I will have the pleasure to accompany you in a Post Chaise—We intend to dine tomorrow at Hounstow—so if you please to order your servant to engage a Post Chaise to be at your Door tomorrow at two o'Clock, we will be with you in Jermyn Street against then The Chaise to be only engaged for *Hounstow*

I am always most sincerely

D<sup>r</sup>. Sir  
Your & h<sup>e</sup>. S<sup>s</sup>.  
*John Turnbull*

Thursday  
3<sup>d</sup>. Yuly. [1790?]  
Col<sup>l</sup>. de Miranda  
N<sup>o</sup>. 104 Pall Mall

Dear Sir: <sup>4</sup>

Your are requested to keep Yourself, disengaged on Monday, as we are to dine together at M<sup>r</sup>. Aufreres at Chilsea. Inclosed is a note from D. Baillie who has appointed Sunday to show his museum. I will call on You at two o Clock. Lord Sandys one of the Trustees of the British Museum will meet us at D<sup>r</sup>. Baillie's and will put You in the way of seeing the British Museum, better than in the usual way.

Yours very sincerely

*G. Colebrocke.*

Saturday [—, 1789?]

Clavigero's History of Mexico is good or bad?

To

M<sup>r</sup>. de Miranda  
N<sup>o</sup>. 47  
Jermyn Street  
S<sup>t</sup>. James.

Dear Sir,<sup>5</sup>

My Father in law Mr. Godwyn, whom you have met at my House, desires I will request the favor of your Company to Dine with him on Thursday next the 14<sup>th</sup> at 1/2 past 4 o'clock to a Beef Steak

<sup>3</sup> "Archivo," vol. VI, p. 55.

<sup>4</sup> "Archivo," vol. VI, p. 3.

<sup>5</sup> "Archivo," vol. VI, p. 37.

Dinner at his Bierhouse in Lower East Smithfield; you will meet most of the Enderby Family there.—

Mr. Goodwyn has a very complete Steam Engine which he will be happy to shew you at the same time: if you can call on me at the Exchange in the Irish Walk any thime before 1/2 past 3 o'clock I will accompany you to Mr. G—'s, or if that time should be too early I will meet you at 4 or 1/2 past 4 o'clock at any Coffee House in the Vicinity of the Exchange; but for fear you should miss me I have at Foot put a full direction—your answer will much oblige,  
your most Obed<sup>t</sup>. Serv<sup>t</sup>.

*Sam<sup>r</sup> Enderby Jun<sup>r</sup>.*

Coleman Street

Monday Eve, April 11th. [1790?] . . .

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Sunday M<sup>s</sup>. [—, 1790?]

Lt. General Melvill presents his best Compliments to Colonel de Miranda and if the Col: is unengaged G. M. requests the honor of his company at half past four tomorrow, to take part of a family dinner and if the Colonel can conveniently bring in his pocket, his observations on the antient situation and fortifications of Marseilles when besieged by the army of Jul: Caesar, the Gen<sup>t</sup>. will be happy to hear them as it was a subject of his own inspection with M. de Grosson, in autumn 1775.—

If the Colonel can come, it will be needless for him to take the trouble of sending any answer.<sup>6</sup>

Colonel de Miranda

47 Jermyn Street

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### III. AMERICAN CONNECTIONS

Excellency:<sup>7</sup>

Since present circumstances prevent me, the war being over and I ready to return to Spain, from visiting that famous country and having the honor of meeting personally the Fabius of these times as I had planned, allow me then to do it through this letter by placing myself at Your Excellency's disposal and introducing, at the same time, my aide, Lieutenant Colonel Don Francisco de Miranda, who with the same purpose is embarking for Philadelphia. His character, education, and other circumstances have always deserved particular appreciation on my part and I hope that they will also merit Your Excellency's appreciation and esteem, which would please me greatly.

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<sup>6</sup> "Archivo," vol. VI, p. 38.

<sup>7</sup> Translated from the "Archivo," vol. V, p. 243. This copy by Miranda bears the signature of General Cagigal.

acreditor igualmente al aprecio, y es-  
timacion de V. E.; que celebrare infinito.

Soy constante admirador de las  
heroicas virtudes de V. E.; y por lo tan-  
to tendre siempre singular satisfac-  
cion en servirle, y que me mande qu-  
anto fuere de su mayor agrado.

Nuestro Señor guarde su apre-  
ciable vida muchos años, y conserve  
sus gloriosos Hechos à la inmortalidad.

Havanna 26. de Mayo de 1783.

Duplicado.

Excmo. Sr. Don

B. L. Al. M. C. de N. y

at. y Agente de N. y

Man. de Cagigal  
F. de S. 88

Excmo. Sr. D. Jorge Washington.

From the "Archivo del General Miranda"

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO GEORGE WASHINGTON.

General Cagigal, under whom Miranda had served in the West Indies before his tour of the United States, gave his young officer a letter of introduction to the "Fabius of his era." Miranda kept among his papers a copy of the letter, in his own handwriting but signed by Cagigal. See a translation of this letter on pp. 500-2.



I am a constant admirer of Your Excellency's heroic virtues; and will therefore have the greatest pleasure in serving Your Excellency in whatever he may wish to command me.

May Heaven guard Your Excellency's precious life many years and preserve his heroic actions unto immortality.

Havana, May 26th, 1783.

Your Excellency's most obedient and faithful servant

*Juan Man<sup>l</sup> de Cagigal*

To His Excellency George Washington.

*Copy.*

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The President presents his Compliments to Colonel Miranda and requests the favour of this Company at Dinner, on Saturday next, at four o'clock.<sup>8</sup>

[1784?]

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New York May 2<sup>d</sup>. 85.

Mr. Waddingtons brother<sup>9</sup> has been so obliging as to forward a letter to me from my good friend, it was indeed a pleasing one, as it gave us the long wished for information of your being safe arrived. You are too laconic. we are in expectation of great improvement from your observations on men. and manners indeed if you are so indolent a correspondant you cant expect much from a silly, wild girl, that is constantly censured for her imprudances. I have lately had a severe lecture for writing to *gentlemen*. a person gave me a *broad hint* that even you disapproved of *any female* doing *such* things, if this is true tell me so, candidly and return all the silly scrawls you have of mine, or assure me of your committing them to the flames & I shall be equally well justified but if you still find pleasure or satisfaction in receiving accounts from your American friends and do not disapprove of a female channel, when I have it in my power I will scribble. Mr. Duer has some appointments in the treasury board 'tho I am greatly mistaken if they have a great deal of money in their possession. Gen<sup>l</sup>. Knox is now our Secretary of War, he is to settle in this City. he takes great pleasure in speaking of you. Mr<sup>s</sup>. M<sup>c</sup>.Cauley Graham has at length arrived. Gen<sup>l</sup>. Knox escorted me immediately to pay my respects to her, as soon as I saw her she delivered your letter to me, this womans conversation is very pleasing and instructive but it is a matter that I cant understand how a philosopher, a *female philosopher too*, should think of ever marrying a man that appears to be in every respect her inferior. I frequently think of all you have said to me on the subject of *human weakness* frail mortalls what single virtue have we a right to boast of. alas none I fear in a perfect degree.

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<sup>8</sup> "Archivo," vol. v, p. 256.

<sup>9</sup> "Archivo," vol. XIII, p. 216.

All those persons that formed the circle of your very intimate acquaintance enjoy perfect health. Polly Sears is now recovering very fast. Charlotte White has had a *narrow escape* from a *bad husband*. She is not now in Town. Elizas comp<sup>ts</sup>. with Sincerity your.

Friend

(Susan Livingston)

Col. D. Francisco de Miranda

to the care of Massrs. David Dickson & C<sup>o</sup>.

Pr. packett

London 27 August 1789.

Madame: <sup>10</sup>

Give me leave to ofer you my best thanks for your kind Letters of the 4 august & 1<sup>o</sup> november 1785, that I received here few weeks ago—and to acquainte you with my very hapy return, after having visited most every society in Europe, Asia-minor, & Egipt—this comparative view, enables me to assure you with sincerity, that out of the share of hapines aloted to mankind. th people of N<sup>th</sup>. America, enjois the best portion perhaps of any other I know! . . . let it may be lasting, are my best wishes.

Mr Shipping of Philadelphia, informed me in Swizerland that you had passed to the hapy State of matrimony . . . I gave you joy, & wish every hapines & satisfaction!—How is all your family? Do me the honour to present my most respectful & affectionate Compliments to every-one in particular—to M<sup>rs</sup>. Montgomery; M<sup>rs</sup>. Chane<sup>r</sup>. Livingston, &c&c—I had the pleasure of dining the other day with the Lady of your family, that acompanied your friend Miss: Read, from New York here; & informed me that she was very well with her father in the country.

I can't tell you any thing about my establishment yet but—shall consider it as my duty. to let you know the place of my residence at any time, that I may entertain the hope of being favoured with a moment remembrance, or honoured with your comands—being allways with the most perfect regard, and respect.

Madame

your m. hu<sup>e</sup> & most hu<sup>e</sup>. ser<sup>t</sup>:

*F. de Miranda.*

P.S. Be so kind if you honoured me with any of your Letters, to add

care of Mess: A. H. Sutherland.

no. 11. New-Broad-Str:

London.

M<sup>rs</sup>: S. N. . . .

<sup>10</sup> "Archivo", vol. xiii, p. 220.

YALE COLLEGE<sup>11</sup>

[New Haven,] July 25, 1784. With Mr. Austen I took lodgings in Mrs. Smith's coffee house. At five o'clock I went to hear a famous preacher from Boston, Mr. Murray, whose doctrine is universal salvation; the attendance was very large and his diction simple and agreeable. Afterward I called on the president of this college, Rev. Dr. Stiles, to whom I had some letters of recommendation, but he was not at home. I took tea with his family (his wife and four or five daughters) and at nine o'clock returned home. . . .

July 26. . . . In the afternoon President Stiles called on me, and I went with him to see the college, whose laws and statutes are in the attached notebook. With the tutors, or masters, Russell and Meigs I visited the classes in algebra and optics, where I observed that these sciences were explained to the students in the simplest and most natural manner. From there we went to the class in Hebrew, taught by the President himself; in a somewhat pedantic manner. The last exercise was attendance at chapel for prayers, which lasted half an hour, and afterwards we went to the tutors' quarters, where we had a glass of wine and conversed of college matters until ten o'clock at night, when I retired to my inn.

July 27. . . . In the afternoon I was at the president's house, examining all his notebooks which contain some curious lore and information. . . . The number of students in the college is 260, and has been as great as 270. . . .

Next we went to see the library and philosophy exhibit. The collection of books is nothing unusual; there must be two or three thousand volumes, among them one that is truly curious, written in Latin before the introduction of printing—it contains passages from the Scripture with some very badly drawn figures from the Old and New Testaments. A pneumatic electric machine, a telescope, and some globes, with other odds and ends of natural history, compose the exhibit, together with a sort of armillary sphere of wood, where the movements of the stars and planets are shown. In this room there are also four or five ancient portraits of the founders and benefactors of the college.

July 29. . . . I dined with Capt. Wooster . . . & at his home, and after dinner we went to the college, where the preceptors were waiting to take me to the declamations, or speeches which the students make in public, an excellent method of accustoming them to speak in public and giving them ease of gesture and expression. . . .

<sup>11</sup> Translated from Miranda's diary as printed in the "Archivo", vol. 1, p. 268 ff.

HARVARD COLLEGE<sup>12</sup>

[Boston,] Autumn, 1784. One day Dr. Waterhouse and I spent in visiting the University of Cambridge . . . where in the company of some tutors (the president was not at home) we proceeded to see the college. The rooms of the tutors and those of the students, though fairly comfortable, have no taste or decoration. The library is quite well kept and clean; it is composed of some 12,000 volumes, English for the most part, and not ill-chosen. The natural history room or cabinet hardly merits the name, having only a few objects, arranged without any apparent order. Among them is a huge tooth of the kind found here; according to the Society of London after an examination of the skeletons found in various places on this continent and sent to England for the purpose, it belonged to one of those extraordinary carnivorous animals, larger than the elephant and which we do not know. Then we went to the Philosophy Room, as they call it; it is a spacious hall, well proportioned and adorned with portraits of the principal benefactors of the college, some engravings by Copley (a native of this city—Boston), and a marble bust of Lord Chatham, a mediocre work. The key to the philosophic exhibition could not be found, and as it was the students' dinner time, we went down to the refectory where we all ate rather frugally; a piece of salt pork, potatoes, cabbage, and a little bread and cheese made up the whole meal, with a little cider to drink. The meal was eaten hurriedly, as is commonly the case with students, and I returned with my companion to Boston.

We had to go back again to examine what we had missed, which we did the following week. We visited with Professor Williams (a man of learning and sense) the philosophic exhibit, which is without doubt very good, and complete enough for their purposes; they lack, nevertheless, an observatory, which explains why the astronomical instruments are separated, some being in one place, some in another. We later climbed to the top of the building where a beautiful view is to be had; and as there was no more to see, we went down to the house of the president, who had invited us to dinner. We dined therefore in his reverend company. I made them a present of a silver medal struck in Mexico by Gil, on the occasion of establishment of the Academy of Private and Public Law, a gift which they highly esteemed. . . .

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<sup>12</sup> Translated from Miranda's diary as printed in the "Archivo", vol. I, p. 318 ff.



This establishment seems to me rather calculated to train clergymen than able and well-informed citizens. It is surely extraordinary that there should not even be one course in modern languages, and that theology should be the main course in the college. . . . The manner of dressing, comporting one's self, and behaving in society . . . are subjects to which not the least attention is paid, and so the students are as slovenly in appearance as any I have ever seen. The president is dry, austere, and unbearably circumspect.

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My dear Friend

I furnished André with two Hundred Guineas to pay your Bills—receipts for which he will present you excepting for Mr<sup>s</sup>. Oldham's Bill, for which I have reserved of the above mentioned sum £21.0.0 as the calculated amount of her demand, I have not yet been able to get a pair of Brass-Barselled pistols such as will suit you, but shall have them in a few days & will send them by a very clever fellow, who will pay you a visit with a Letter from me, & for whom I shall ask your civilities—as to the money you may make yourself easy untill you hear from me, or we have the happiness of seing each other, in the mean time as a soldier, engaged in the death-dealing scenes of War you should arrange your affairs—make a Will—point out to your Executors what appropriations you would have made of your effects & how the small debts you leave behind are to be paid, & what are to be done with your Journals &c—these arrangements the mind in some degree revolts at, but they are proper to be made, and by no means hasten a Mans death—you doubtless will have seen the declaration of this Court to their High Mightinesses before this reaches you and have heard, that a Mr. Lindsay is sent from this Court, to make a Corresponding communciation to the Executive power of the Republic, what effect this will have, I immagine both of us conjecture alike, Mr. Pitt is coming forward it seems once more, if he does not, he will be dragged forward, the present administration of England, in the external affairs of their Country have acted a very Strange part & I do not think I shall be charged with presumption if I say a weak one, at least thus must I pay to you as a friend, who may very possible have to oppose them—it—In all Circumstances relative to them, deliberately consider, what System it is for the honor, interest & dignity of the Nation that the Ministers should pursue, what will excite foreing respect and insure domestic peace and tranquillity & make your arrangement to find & meet them upon exactly the opposite ground and eight times out of ten you will find you have crosed them in their Career—The political History of Mr. Pitt, written with an impartial pen would make a very singular figure—his Conduct towards America fully proves him to be short-sighted minister, &

his nation I hope will soon feel the effects of it—his Career relative to nortka sound, clearly marks him as a weak & puerile negotiator—His Conduct in the Russian War connected with his declaration as the possession of Occhicoff & the navigation of the Niester, unfolds the *Vox et preteria nihil* of a simple declamatory minister, incapable of digesting any dignified political System for his Country, & not soul enough even to carry his petulent & little politicks into active operation—but he is now coming forward once more—mark his progress and his Excit—it is now Strongly conjectured that he will form a coalition with the Duke of Portland & Mr. Fox, the latter of whom is so deranged in his finances by the follies of the last year, as to be ready to catch at any thing, to bear him up, *quis talia fando abstinet a Lacrymis*. Mr. Pitt tells Their *High Mightinesses* that the English nation are determined to fullfill all treaties existing between their respective nations & if they are in any manner externally affected by the movements of the soldiers of Liberty, or their own Inhabitants presume to discever the least disposition to throw off the galling yoke of an oppressive aristocracy, the wealth & force of Britain are at service of the Stadtholder & their High Mightinesses, & I suppose Portland and Fox are to suport this great puff, with the force of their parties but let him be a ware, *John Bull* begins to ask what the Devil Mr. Pitt means thus to Voluntier a question & seek a contest which cannot fail to shake the Nation to the Center, and render more weak if not totally destroy the force influence and existence of an already weak and tottering Throne—But let him run, if notwithstanding the ostensibly great career of this puissant Minister the end his administration does not leave this nation in a more horid state than that fancy of his predessessors. . . . I shall be off in a few days—take Care of yoursell & *ca ira*—present me to your great General Demouriez & believe me sincerely & affectionetely yours.

W. S. Smith.<sup>13</sup>

Lt. General Miranda.

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My Dear General

I wish you to come and dine with me at 5 ock. to day.—We shall be quite alone, and may amuse our selves with conversing upon whatever topic we please.

Yrs. &c.

R. King.<sup>14</sup>

I have a volume or two of a superb copy of De Bry to show you.  
[London,] Thursday, 11 feby. 1804

<sup>13</sup> "Archivo," vol. vi, p. 228. The writer was the son-in-law of John Adams, and an intimate friend of Miranda's. He is often mentioned in the articles in this issue. See his portrait on p. 487.—EDITOR.

<sup>14</sup> Rufus King, Minister of the United States. "Archivo," vol. vi, p. 453.

IV. EARLY DAYS OF MIRANDA'S EXPEDITION TO VENEZUELA <sup>15</sup>

*Ship Leander, at Sea, February 5th, 1806.*

Dear Friend:

Publick rumour has probably given you some information of a mysterious expedition, said to be fitting out at New-York, under the auspices of a celebrated character. I have been persuaded by my friend Mr. \*\*\*\*\* to commit myself to the chances of an enterprise, at once extraordinary and dangerous; and to leave my own country once more, in hope of honour and its reward. You may perhaps fear that I have been seduced by the glitter of fair promises, or the allurements of novelty; or prompted by a spirit of adventure to speculate too largely on the favours of fortune. It may be so; but I have deliberated much on the subject, and think I am justified in the resolution I have taken. I confess, however, that in forming it, the opinion of men, whose fortunes and characters are staked on the issue, had great authority. . . .

We have been out three days, the wind blowing hard all the time, till within two hours. I begin my epistolary journal by informing you that the *Leander* is a ship of about two hundred tons burden, commanded by capt. Thomas Lewis, who is reputed to be a man of intrepidity, and thorough master of his profession. He is said to have proved his spirit and bravery on occasions, which put them to the test; and his appearance and deportment are, in my estimation, strong indications of his possessing the character which report, and his own actions have established. From the little I have seen, I have no doubt of his seamanship; for I notice he manages the vessel with skill and ease; and the ocean seems to be his element. There are nearly two hundred souls on board, so that as you may conceive, we are very much crowded, and on that account, but ill accommodated.

You naturally inquire what is the object and destination of this ship? what do we propose and whither are we going? I am unable to give a positive answer to either of these questions; for only a few confidential persons concerned are let into the secret; nor do I know the extent of that knowledge relating to it, that possibly might be obtained, were I to make it my business to importune for particular information. I deem it proper at this moment, to suffer my curiosity to remain unsatisfied till the period arrives when inquiry will not be considered impertinent, or an exposure of our plans and intentions impolitic. This, I apprehend, will shortly be the case. I for one, and most others, have embarked upon general information and assurances that more shall be disclosed at a suitable season. We rely much on our leader and on those who recommended him to our confidence. We know enough not to be angry with ourselves for joining

<sup>15</sup> Biggs, *op. cit.*, pp. 1-8 and 35.

the undertaking; we imagine and conjecture much. Generally, I can say that we are engaged in an expedition to some part of the Spanish dominions, probably in South America, with a view to assist the inhabitants in throwing off the oppressive yoke of the parent country; and establishing a government for themselves, upon which we are told by our general they have resolved; and for which he says they are entirely disposed and prepared. For this purpose the Leander was engaged and fitted out, as we understand, by the credit and funds

MONUMENT IN HON-  
OR OF AMERICANS  
AT PUERTO CABEL-  
LO.

This monument was erected in memory of the citizens of the United States and two other foreigners who died on Miranda's expedition to Venezuela in 1806.



of Don Francisco de Miranda, the commander in chief of the expedition. The vessel is laden with arms of various descriptions, ammunition, cloathing, and every kind of military equipage necessary for a campaign. A number of Americans, some of them gentlemen, and persons of good standing in society, though mostly, I believe, of crooked fortunes, have embarked. Few of us, before entering the ship, saw our leader, but had our communication with those, who were his acknowledged agents and advocates. We have, as yet, made



no definite engagements with him, nor he with us; and I presume, if upon further insight into the business, or experience of the service, we shall be dissatisfied, we may, if we please, withdraw; though it must be confessed our destinies, now we have proceeded so far, are seriously joined with those of Miranda. Do you ask, whether our taking a part in this enterprise consists with our relation to our country, or with moral right, to say nothing of common discretion? I hope it is inconsistent with neither. I will not say that there are not some of our company desperate or base enough to disregard these weighty considerations. Perhaps it is a matter of indifference to many of the volunteers in what cause they act, if it do but promise them an opportunity of distinguishing themselves by martial achievements, and afford a chance of acquiring some portion of the riches, supposed to be in the hands of unworthy possessors in the south. By the issue of this undertaking they can hardly lose, and may gain. But the greater number of those who can reasonably look for high places or large emolument are not desperadoes, though they are adventurers; and although they are willing, from situation or temper, to try a bold and hazardous scheme, it would be illiberal as well as unjust to infer that they would act an unprincipled or dishonourable part.

We are encouraged in the belief that our government has given its implied sanction to this expedition, and this circumstance, taken in connexion with the official language of the President, and the known sentiments of some of the political party that now prevails, leads us to suppose that our government expects or intends, very soon explicitly to authorise the use of force against Spain. Under such impressions, we think we shall not be called to account as violating the pacifick relations of the United States. The project of appearing for the relief of the oppressed, under the banners of a celebrated chief, who is said to be their greatest friend and favorite; of lending our assistance to found an independent state, in extensive, fertile and populous regions, where the spirit of the people is crushed and the resources of nature are kept down by a vile colonial policy, presents itself to our imaginations and hearts in the most attractive light, and makes us rejoice that it has fallen to our lot, to attempt the deliverance of a large portion of our fellow men. We flatter ourselves it is honourable and humane to be thus engaged; still I am sensible that nothing short of complete success will ensure such a design the approbation of the mass of mankind. If we succeed, our fame will take care of itself. To quiet the revoltings of humanity and satisfy us that we are not going upon cruel work, we are told that a revolution can take place in the country proposed, with little violence and perhaps without the loss of much blood: the people are said to be now awake to their sufferings, and inclined

and competent to remove the cause, as the government by which they are oppressed is weak and inefficient. On this disposition of the inhabitants to join the standard of our leader in such number as to compel the few friends of the old order to make terms without delay, we place our expectations of success. It is also intimated that we shall receive, as far as occasion shall require, the countenance and co-operation of the British. After all, it must be confessed, we may be "plucking a thousand dangers on our heads:" but we presume our conductor knows what he is doing, and will lead us to great exploits and splendid fortunes.

*March 12th, 1806*

This day the Columbian colours were displayed on board for the first time. This Ensign is formed of the three primary colours which predominate in the rainbow. We made a fête on the occasion—a gun was fired and toasts were drank to the auspices of a standard, which is expected to wave to the triumph of freedom and humanity in a country long oppressed. . . .





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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



HIPÓLITO UNÁNUE

1755-1833

MANUEL AMADOR GUERRERO

1833-1909

JULY

1933

MEXICO HONDURAS JAMAICA GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR



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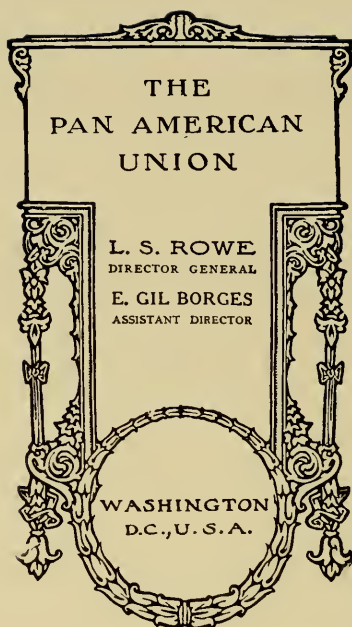
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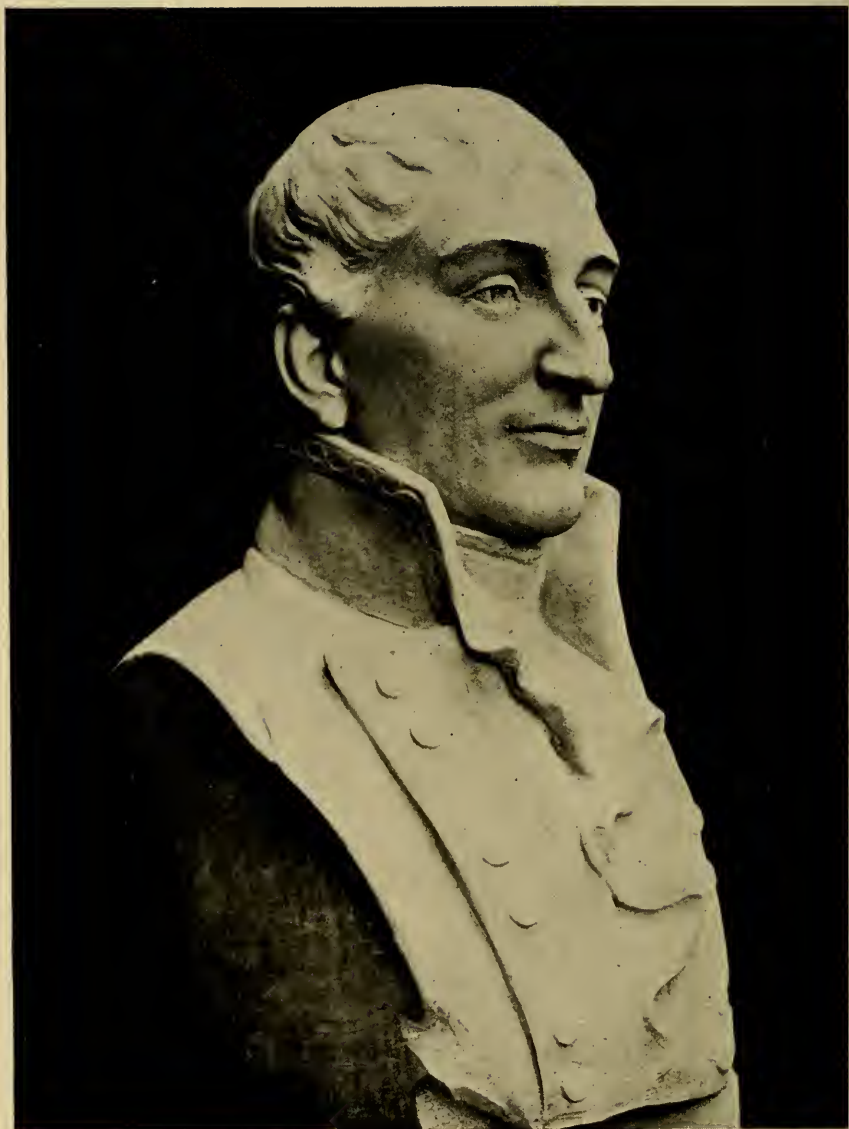
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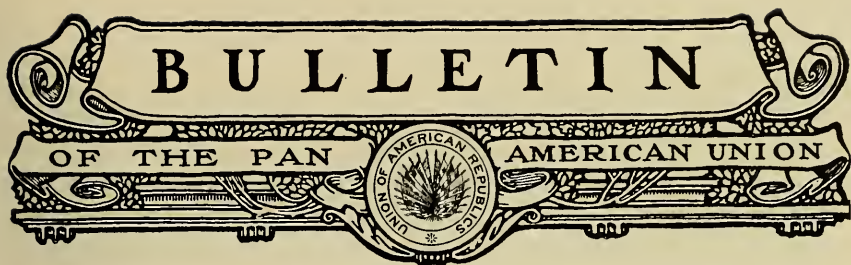
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BUST OF UNÁNUE IN THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

In an address delivered on the occasion of the unveiling of this bust in the Pan American Union, May 19, 1921, the late Federico Alfonso Pezet, then Peruvian Ambassador to the United States, said: "Unánue is easily the principal political figure of independent Peru. His fame as a scientific man, the purity and austerity of his private and public life, his political experience, all combine to enhance his reputation. I consider it an honor to be called upon to withdraw the veil which still hides his marble features in this hall, pervaded by the glorious spirit of the greatest men of America. Another few moments and Unánue will again be the companion of Bolívar, of Sucre, of San Martín, and of O'Higgins. A happy destiny this, which calls him to share in effigy the comradeship of those who, in life, were his great and good friends and faithful partners in the struggle."



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## HIPÓLITO UNÁNUE

1755-1833

By JOSÉ DE LA RIVA AGÜERO

*Corresponding member of the Spanish Academies of Letters and of History,  
and of the Hispanic Society of America*

**D**R. Hipólito Unánue, the celebrated Peruvian physician, botanist, and statesman, was the son of Don Antonio Unánue, a Basque mariner, and Doña Manuela Pavón de Unánue, a native of Arica, where he was born on August 13, 1755. In one of his writings (the eulogy of the Captain General José de Urrutia) Unánue paid an affectionate tribute to the Spanish Province of his forefathers: "Nature has endowed the citizens of Biscay with noble and high-minded customs, with a spirit which rises above misfortune, and with constancy and patience in toil."

Unánue's early education was entirely ecclesiastical. His first teacher was Father Osorio, a priest in Arica who was a near relative of his mother; from this tutelage he went, while still a child, to study in San Jerónimo Seminary at Arequipa, where his budding talent was recognized and fostered. His mother's brother, Father Pedro Pavón, who lived in Lima, was a respected and admired member of the Oratorian order and, later, a professor of philosophy at the University of San Marcos, the oldest on the American Continent. In 1777 the young seminarist went to the capital to seek the advice and protection of his uncle in finishing his studies. Father Pavón recognized that his nephew, for all his fine qualities, had no real religious vocation and therefore persuaded him to study medicine under the famous professors Dr. Cosme Bueno, an Aragonese, and Dr. Gabriel Moreno, a creole from Canta. To support himself, Unánue became tutor in the household of Doña Mariana de Belzunce y Salazar, one of the foremost matrons of Lima, the niece of the noted Bishop of Marseilles; by her

first and annulled marriage she had been Countess of Casa Dávalos and by her second was the wife of the wealthy landholder, Don Agustín de Landaburu, the mayor of Lima in 1766.

The salon of Doña Mariana de Belzunce was at that time the most aristocratic gathering in Lima; and there Unánue soon became intimate with the relatives and friends of the family, who were later the nucleus of his clientele and circle of friends; the Counts and Countesses de Montemar y Montebanco, Vistaflorida, and la Vega del Ren, the Marquis and Marchioness of Santa María, and other persons of prominence. It was usual in the eighteenth century, as a survival of the system of seigniorial patronage, for young men in hope of a career to begin as secretaries or tutors. So Unánue, during the early years of his residence in Lima, was highly esteemed as the distinguished tutor of the son of his patroness, Agustín de Landaburu y Belzunce, for whom he acted as agent and whose heir he finally became; and of her nephew, Don Fernando Carrillo de Albornoz y Salazar. Through these contacts Unánue became the most renowned and fashionable physician of the city. In addition to his scientific knowledge, he had in his favor vivacity and wit, refinement, and personal magnetism.

In 1789 he won the appointment to the chair of anatomy in the university; that subject had always been his favorite. But his professional duties and studies did not prevent him from having a wide acquaintance with literature. To the knowledge of Latin and Italian authors and of the French encyclopedists that was usual in his day, he added an extensive acquaintance with classic Greek poets and contemporaneous English letters, as is proven by frequent references in his works.

From 1785, and even before that date, he frequented the philosophical and poetical salon of Don José María Egaña, the forerunner of the *Academia Filarmónica* and of the renowned *Sociedad de Amantes del País* (Society of Friends of the Country), which began in 1791 to publish the *Mercurio Peruano*. Unánue went to Egaña's house every night from 9 to 11; and there the partners in the *Mercurio* kept on gathering until, after the association had been declared of public service, a room in the university was offered to them.

Unánue was the secretary of the group from the very beginning. Among his most regular collaborators were Rossi y Rubí, Don José Baquijano y Carrillo, Calero y Moreyra, a lawyer, the Oratorian priest Don Tomás Méndez Lachica, and Fray Diego Cisneros, of the Jeronymite order. The acute and pithy articles in the *Mercurio*, which were the result of that association, are the finest picture and the best proof of the intellectual attainments of Lima at the end of the eighteenth century. Unánue's first brief article dealt with the archaeological monuments of ancient Peru, a subject which he called "paleosophy". He is to be admired for his clear-sighted discernment,



HIPÓLITO UNÁNUE.

This modern portrait of the illustrious Peruvian patriot, physician, scientist, and writer was painted by the Spanish artist Julio Vila Prades and is the property of Luis Alayza y Paz Soldán of Lima.



far in advance of his times. In that article there may be found the outlines of a criterion which we imagine to be extremely modern; and he shows remarkable perspicacity in speaking of the statues at Tiahuanaco, the tombs at Chachapoyas, the structures at Pachacámac, and the fortress of Herbay near Cañete. He was skeptical of the stories quoted by all the historians, and especially by Garcilaso, a skepticism which in modern criticism has become even more pronounced. He affirms that it is preferable to judge by "the comparison, or rather the interpretation, of the ancient fragments and ruins. A study of the monuments which the Peruvians erected, their traditions and the remains of their ancient usages and customs surely offers a new light strong enough to complete the imperfect picture of the ancient empire which Garcilaso drew for us." That is exactly the approved procedure at the present time. Equal wisdom was shown in his appreciation of indigenous music, whose sweet melancholy charmed him. In all this the Incaphile tendencies of the *Mercurio* generation stand out clearly; despite criticism they continued the labor of loving understanding and national conciliation begun by the Inca Garcilaso.

The essays of Unánue on geography, medicine, natural history, and literature, which were scattered through the numbers of the *Mercurio*, bear witness to a catholic and perspicacious curiosity. It was he who called attention to Caviedes and his *Diente del Parnaso*, to the letter of the conquistador Pedro de Osma, and to the pioneers of Peruvian botany.

Unánue and his circle were enthusiastic supporters of public improvements; they fostered with ardent altruism the new practical and theoretical projects dealing with irrigation, school reform, metallurgy, and free trade; they were carried away by the exalted tendency of their century to imagine all progress easy, all paths into the future peaceful and free from obstacles, general good will inviolable and infallible. Such a dangerous optimism usually brings a tragic awakening, and the revolutionary catastrophes in Europe and America very soon disillusioned and enlightened those who, like Unánue, were deceived by the prosperous calm of the last days of the old regime and could exclaim during the administration of the excellent Viceroy Gil de Taboada, "Happy the age in which the nations enjoy a philosopher for governor, in which the restoration of Peru is begun! Its inhabitants may boast of living in Elysium, where the abundance of the rivers has increased, each hill has become a new Potosí,<sup>1</sup> the cost of living has gone down, and commerce is flourishing."<sup>2</sup> It is extremely rare that in the course of history such

<sup>1</sup> The mountain in Bolivia from which an extraordinary amount of silver has been extracted through the centuries. The legends that have grown up about the mines, which are still producing, have made the name synonymous with fabulous wealth.—EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> From the address at the opening of the Anatomical Amphitheater.

# MERCURIO PERUANO

DEL DIA 23. DE ENERO DE 1791.

HISTORIA DE LA SOCIEDAD ACADÉMICA DE *AMANTES*  
*del País*, y principios del *Mercurio Peruano*.

**S**ON tan varios los pareceres que hay en el Público sobre la ereccion de nuestra Sociedad, y sobre el origen de este papel periódico, que nos creemos obligados á descubrir los principios de uno, y otro. Lo que todavia quedará envuelto en un misterioso grecismo, es la positiva enumeracion de los Socios, y sus nombres verdaderos: puede que no pase mucho tiempo sin que nos demos á conocer aun por esta parte.

En el año de 1787. *Hesperióflo* puso término á sus viajes por un engaño de la fortuna, y se domicilió en esta Capital. Su espíritu vivaz, ardiente é inquieto no encontraba pábullo suficiente en las tareas privadas de su obligacion, ni en las recreaciones del público. La equitacion y la caza le proporcionaban un exercicio agradable: la lectura y la meditacion eran los entretenimientos de su gabinete. En un paseo de Lurin (1) conoció á *Hermágoras*, *Hóndiimo*, y *Mindtrido*, todos tres jóvenes amabilísimos. *Hermágoras* desde muchos años ántes entretenia una buena tertulia en su casa, á donde concurrían ademas de los dos nombrados, *Agelasto* y *Aristio*. *Hesperióflo* tuvo el honor de quedar agregado á esta pequeña sociedad. Sus concurrencias eran indefectiblemente todas las noches desde las

G

ocho

(1) Pueblecito habitado solo de Indios que dista cinco Leguas de esta Capital. Lo saludable de su temperamento es causa de que lo frecúenten los valetudinarios.

A PAGE OF THE "MERCURIO PERUANO."

In this account of the beginnings of the "Mercurio Peruano", the first number of which was issued January 2, 1791, under the auspices of a group of brilliant young men called the Sociedad de Amantes del País, and in other articles written in the same vein. Unánue, one of the leading members, is referred to as "Aristio." This page is reproduced from the copy of the "Mercurio Peruano" in the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union.

optimistic prophecies, Virgilian in style, are ever fulfilled; and the gentle breeze of an Antonine era is often the forerunner of a tempest of decadence and the indescribable havoc of civil wars. Notwithstanding the credulous kindliness of his mind and that of his contemporaries, Unánue was not incapable of foreseeing the storm, since his fine sensibilities and clear understanding, together warned him: "We cannot count on a moment of perfect pleasure in our time. What shall we say of the miseries with which the eighteenth century is ending? With what hues shall we portray the universal anguish of unhappy mankind?"<sup>3</sup>

Until the holocaust reached Peruvian shores, Unánue could, thanks to the support of his superiors, devote himself quietly and ably to bringing about the progress in which his generous and active spirit delighted. In 1793 his beloved Anatomical Amphitheater was inaugurated with a learned and eloquent discourse; this institution, which indicated no little progress in America, was an imitation of the Academy of Surgery established in France about 1733. Continuing the labors of Don Cosme Bueno, he published from 1793 to 1797 political and geographical guides to the Viceroyalty of Peru, full of interesting information. In 1796 he drafted most of the report of the benevolent Viceroy Gil de Taboada. Unánue's recommendations in that document are still timely after 137 years. In 1794 he had already presented to the same Viceroy a *Report on the Literary Establishments in Peru*. Early in 1800 he composed the address to be delivered at the opening of the new road to Callao, in which he paused to compare the highways of the Chinese Empire with those of Peru in the time of the Incas. In 1806 he wrote two discourses on vaccination, praising the mission headed by Salvani and sent by Carlos IV to instruct the South Americans in this scientific advance.

The same year the first edition of Unánue's most important work, *El Clima de Lima* (Observations on the Climate of Lima), appeared. It is a singularly vivacious, penetrating, and pleasant book, the work of his full maturity; the style is no longer that of the essays in the *Mercurio*, which, composed in the rush of daily life, show traces of hasty improvisation in grammatical errors, frequent gallicisms, and obscure passages, all faults consonant with the habitual language of the period. The pages of *El Clima de Lima*, on the contrary, are among the most elegant in the Spanish literature of the time, and suggest the influence of Buffon, almost a contemporary. The descriptions of Lima and its fields, of its delightful temperature and mild spring, all interspersed with well-chosen verses from Tasso and the Jesuit Vanière, deserve a place in anthologies. There are picturesque traces of delicate local color, like the descriptions of the autumn clouds,

<sup>3</sup>*Mercurio Peruano*, No. 65, Aug. 18, 1791.



of the fiesta on St. John's Day on the Pampa de Amancaes, and of the vicuña and taruca (a native deer). There are also ingenious touches, in describing the psychology of the white Peruvian, "the living image of his Spanish grandparents, but more soft-hearted, more compassionate, and less strong in thought and deed"; and in the appraisal of the varicolored castes or mixtures as "of heated imagination, voluble tongue, and love for show." There are philological observations which range far afield, such as that concerning the very remote Polynesian influences on the Peruvian Indians, which today are being put forward by specialists of the rank of Rivet. Unánue's remarks on



From "Lima", by Manuel A. Fuentes.

#### LIMA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Handsome buildings of the colonial epoch graced some of the principal streets of the Peruvian capital when this drawing was published in 1867 and many are still standing. The colonial style is also much used in modern architecture.

potable water might be those of sanitarians of today. His whole theory on the importance of climate is summed up in a judicious limitation of the extremes to which Montesquieu went, that is, in the explicit recognition of the evolution and perfectibility of races: "Rational ability is equally distributed in all parts of the earth. Everywhere man is capable of everything, if he is helped by education and example. But also throughout the universe those nations which, under the curb of religion and law, breed men of culture and learning produce only monsters and cannibals, once that curb is removed." These principles of eternal and indispensable common sense, vitalized by carefully observed and well-digested facts, make *The Climate of Lima* a book



which is not only pleasing to the lay reader and extremely interesting to physicians and geographers, but also highly instructive as regards sociology and ethics; it was the supreme and brilliant achievement of the Encyclopedist School of Lima.

When Abascal took over the government, Unánue became his most diligent aide in the campaigns for city cleanliness and embellishment and for public instruction. But the work of greatest fame and importance which occupied his mind in those years was the founding of the San Fernando School of Medicine. Ever since his able report to the Viceroy in 1807, he had been seeking to have a well-equipped school established. He wished to install it in the Hospital de Santa Ana, but, because of opposition by the authorities of that institution, he had to locate it in a place accessible to that hospital and others, next to his beloved Anatomical Amphitheater of which, in methods, professors, and courses, it was a continuation and expansion. The city government of Lima gave its cordial cooperation. Unánue, who in 1807 had been promoted to be physician in chief of the Viceroyalty, now gave all his time to teaching, reserving for a very few occasions his direct consultations and professional attendance. To his confirmed rival and detractor, Dr. Dávalos, an adherent of the doctrines of Montpellier, he generously offered a chair in San Fernando.

Don Hipólito Unánue was at that time considered the chief exponent of Peruvian science and the brightest ornament of San Marcos University, the Don Pedro Peralta<sup>4</sup> of his era. His house was the focus of intellectual life in Lima. In his drawing room, patio, and office, professors and students carried on ceaseless discussions, and such distinguished foreigners met with them as the German savants Baron von Humboldt, Baron von Nordenpficht, and Thaddeus Haenke, and the Italians, Malaspina, Salvani, and Devoti. Unánue continued to write some verse, although in poetry he was less successful than in prose. His favorite poetic model was the English poet Young, the gloomy precursor of romanticism.

Meanwhile, the French invasion of the Peninsula and the consequent Spanish and American revolutions were agitating all minds and upsetting laws and individuals even in the secluded and docile colony of Peru. Unánue, an exponent of the moderate liberalism of 1812, returned to the journalistic arena in the periodical *Verdadero Peruano* and in an occasional timely pamphlet. Morales y Duárez, Vistaflorida, and Torre-Tagle, who belonged to the same political party as Unánue, left for Spain under official appointments. He himself was elected deputy from Arequipa to the Cortes of Cádiz, but he delayed his voyage to Spain until 1814, in order to attend to the affairs of his beloved pupil, Landaburu, whose property had been

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<sup>4</sup> Pedro de Peralta y Barnuevo (1663-1743) was a Peruvian poet, also noted as a linguist and scientist. He was president and founder of an Academy of Mathematics and Oratory, and several times Rector of the University of San Marcos.—EDITOR.

confiscated in 1809 and not returned because of his French sympathies. Once in Madrid, he supervised the second edition of *El Clima de Lima*; he succeeded in having removed the embargo on the extensive property of Landaburu, who had just died in exile, and himself inherited the estate.

By 1816 he was again in Lima, after having barely escaped shipwreck at Cape Horn. The University solemnly celebrated his return. The advocates of independence from Spain, by that time numerous, tried to attract him to their cause, but he would make no open decision. His friendship with Abascal, for whom, as is no secret, he wrote part of the latter's well-known report, kept him in the royalist ranks.



PATIO OF THE SCHOOL OF MEDICINE, SAN MARCOS UNIVERSITY, LIMA.

One of Unánue's most ardent aspirations was realized with the foundation of the San Fernando School of Medicine in 1811. The institution still survives as the present Medical School. San Marcos is the oldest university on the American continent.

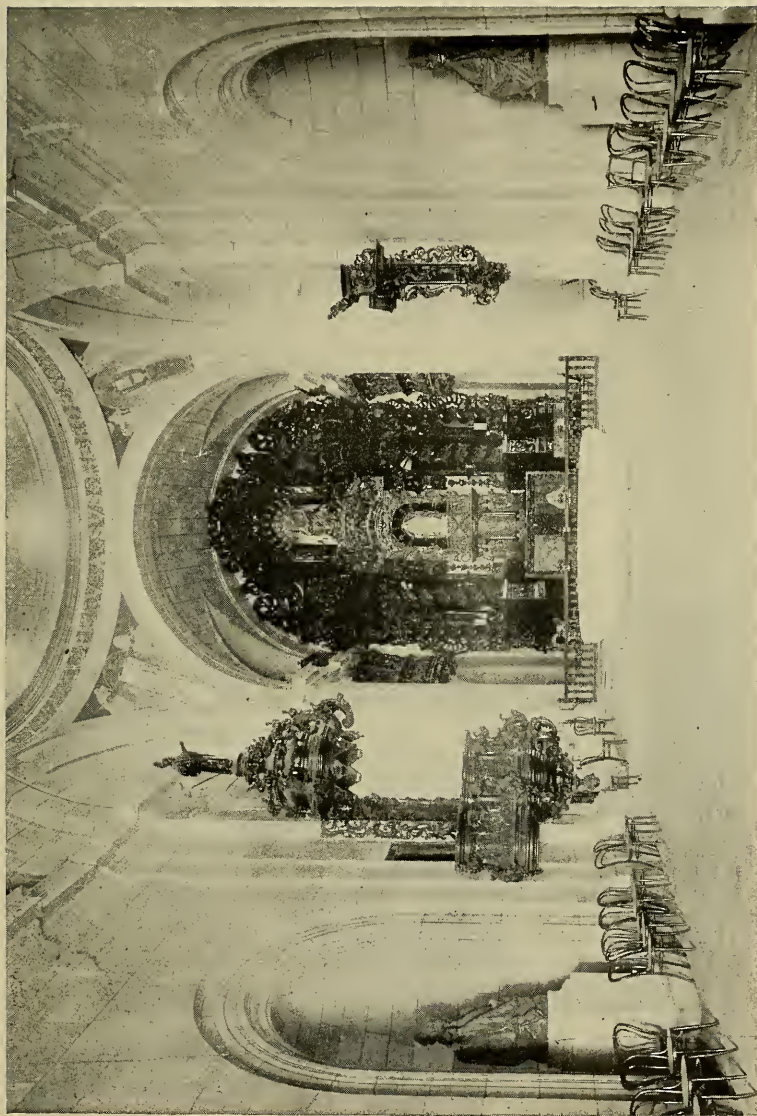
Before his voyage to Spain it was reported that Abascal admonished him for expressing liberal convictions in conversations which he was said to have had with the young physicians Tafur, Paredes, Pezet, Valdés, and Chacaltena. At about the same time Unánue wrote a brief for practical equality of rights and absolute liberty of election for Peruvians as well as for Spaniards, and the story is that the excitable Count de la Vega del Ren, in his nationalistic exaltation, knelt to sign it. Unánue, departing from the idea of a royal union as provided in the Constitution of Cádiz, was inclined, as were many of his contemporaries, to advocate a more or less complete autonomy under a prince of the Spanish dynasty, following the old plan of the Count de Aranda, and anticipating the analogous and successful

example of Brazil. This attitude explains the repeated rumors, Unánue's later self-justification, whose sincerity there is no reason to doubt, and the contents of a letter of García del Río to O'Higgins soon after San Martín had landed at Pisco. However that may be, in view of his reputation as the wisest and most eminent creole physician, he was named by Viceroy Pezuela secretary to the commission appointed to negotiate at the Conference of Miraflores; and he thus became actively involved in the conflict for independence.

His calm and equable temperament did not fit him for so difficult a task. He himself, in a significant passage from his writings, confesses with noble candor that, although he was undismayed and valiant when faced with material dangers, he found himself helpless before the attacks of human passion. On this occasion he says that he expressed to the Viceroy his personal conviction that a friendly separation could be arranged, Peru to be governed by a Spanish prince and a commercial treaty made between the mother country and this colony. But without even getting to the point of formulating such bases, the negotiators at Miraflores failed from the outset. The two colleagues of Unánue were Count de Villar del Fuente and Don Dionisio Capaz, a naval officer. The latter usurped the functions and even the signature of the former secretary, who had to repudiate it through the press. In the so-called Punchanca treaties, eight months later, which were much more important and explicit, Unánue did not participate at all. But the attitude which the learned teacher had already adopted made it logical for him to cooperate, as Minister of Finance, in the regime of San Martín's Protectorate.

After independence had been proclaimed and the agreement with the royalists for government by a prince of the Spanish dynasty disavowed, Unánue, deciding against any solution involving the Bourbons, signed with San Martín, Monteagudo, Moreno y Escandón, and Dean Echagüe the instructions to seek a monarch in Europe. Paz Soldán has censured Unánue's first term as Minister of Finance (from August 1821 to September 1822) as timid and routinary. I, on the contrary, should qualify some of his measures, such as the first emission of paper money, as extremely daring. He was not without a knowledge of economic principles, because of the type of reading customary among his generation; his ideas show traces of the influence of Turgot and Jovellanos. The general inexperience and lack of resources of that first independent government, the deep misery of the impoverished country, and the harrowing urgencies of the war confronted him with great emergencies, and he emerged successful from the ordeal. He reduced the number of employees, united bureaus, and, without levying new taxes—impossible of collection because of the exhaustion of resources—met the expenditures for salaries and the





CHURCH OF SAN CARLOS, LIMA, PERU.  
In this Pantheon of National Heroes lie the remains of Hipólito Unánué.



campaign. Although he placed great hopes in the mineral resources of his country, it is unjust to say that he considered that its wealth lay only in precious metals. He gave deep thought to agriculture and industry, to irrigation and the rapid increase of population; and although he was a confirmed protectionist, he was an enemy of state monopolies. Scrupulous and eager for good credit, he sought taxes in advance to guarantee unavoidable loans. Since he was Minister of Instruction as well as of Finance, he tried to increase the revenues for education, fearing that the war would lower the level of culture, as he said in these prophetic words: "If the teaching of our youth is not planned in advance, the coming generation, although free, will be very much more limited in its outlook than that which fought for freedom; then our sacrifices will have been wasted." One day San Martín, in momentary anger, apparently offended him in a discussion over the capture of the English brigantine *Anna*. Unánue withdrew from the room with the intention of resigning; but when the Protector realized it, he sent him a letter of apology, which Don Eugenio Larra-bure, the grandson of Unánue, keeps in a beautiful frame.

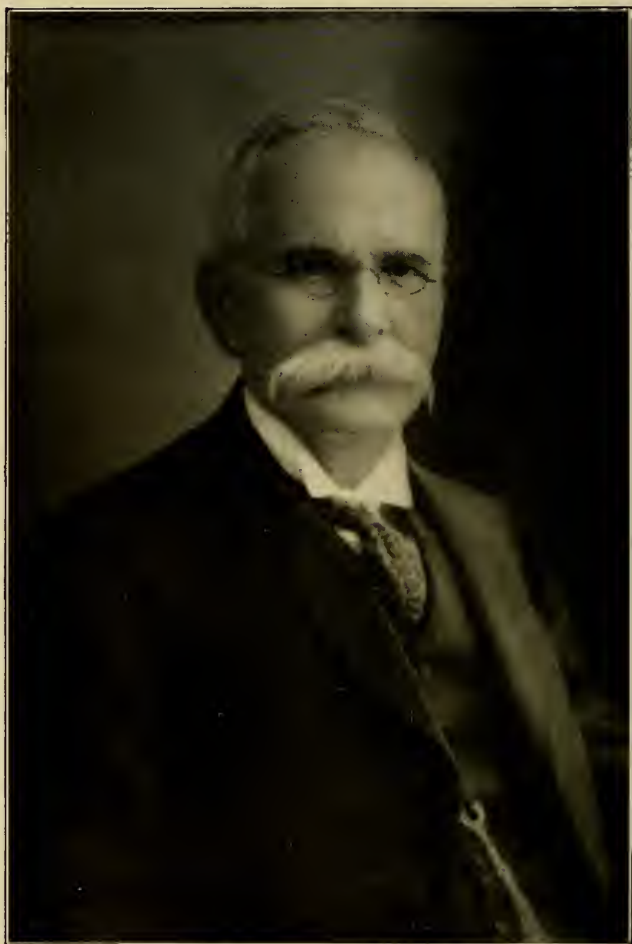
As representative for Puno in, and on several occasions President of, the First Constituent Congress, Unánue drew up the Constitution of 1823, with Luna Pizarro, Olmedo, Pérez de Tudela and Figuerola. In the beginning he and the first two tenaciously opposed the arrival of Bolívar and Colombian intervention, because of the questions of Guayaquil, Jaén and Maynas. He voted for a single state religion and universal compulsory military service. He was inclined to favor the formation and maintenance of a purely Peruvian army and the establishment of a strong executive. Therefore, beginning with February 18, 1823, he heartily recommended the election of Riva-Agüero to the presidency. Later, on June 12, just prior to the evacuation of the capital before the advance of the royalists, it was Unánue who proposed and obtained the vote of confidence in the President; and at Trujillo he approved the adjournment of the Congress, and later accepted and exercised the office of Senator. He could defend his stand by citing what had already happened in so many sections of Spanish America, and especially in Buenos Aires on November 7, 1811. But later, on thinking the matter over, and understanding the tragic contingencies, the deplorable obstinacy of Riva-Agüero, and the involuntary powerlessness of the isolated government at Trujillo, he returned to Lima and again joined the reassembled Congress, reconciling himself with his opponents; he even went so far as to agree, in obedience to some of their suggestions, to sign with the rest various strongly worded communications, contradictory to his recent declarations. After the loss of the fortifications of Callao and the new evacuation of Lima, a group of royalist horsemen robbed and abandoned him as he was retreating toward Pativilca, leaving him on the sandy

plains which surround the Chancay Valley. He was saved by a miracle, being picked up by a horseman who took pity on his age and helplessness. He had an audience with Bolívar in the general barracks and from then on was a most resolute partisan of the latter's dictatorship and the Life-Term Constitution.<sup>5</sup>

Under Bolívar Unánue was given for the second time the portfolios of Finance and of Education; he was also President of the Council and temporarily discharged the office of Chief Executive in the absence of Bolívar and General La Mar. He gave political encouragement to the Lancastrian primary school system, the Public Library, the Latinity Museum connected with it, and the establishment of secondary schools. With praiseworthy zeal he sought the federation of Upper and Lower Peru; he proposed the gradual extinction of slavery and government aid for national mills and factories. When the life presidency of Bolívar failed, Unánue was living in retirement at Cañete, taking care of his neglected estate. He was beginning to feel the fatigue of his 70 years. He complained of weakness of vision, aggravated by excessive reading and continual astronomical observations, but he did not give up the study of letters or of nature. In the last pages which he wrote he paints the tropical landscape of Cañete—the quiet refuge of his old age—with its green and golden expanse of sugarcane, the verdant fields of alfalfa, the blue sea under the brilliant sky to the west, the sand dunes and the arid mountains to the east. From such a placid refuge he only returned to Lima to die in peace on July 15, 1833.

<sup>5</sup> The Life-Term Constitution was drawn up by Bolívar for the American Republics which he had liberated; its outstanding feature was that the President was elected for life. Although adopted by Bolivia and Peru in 1826, it did not last long in either country; in the former it was radically altered two years later; in the latter, abolished within six months.—EDITOR.





*M. Pradoguen*

Courtesy of Ricardo J. Alfaro.

JUNE 30, 1833-MAY 2, 1909.

# MANUEL AMADOR GUERRERO

By RICARDO J. ALFARO

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SINCE the discovery and colonization of the former *Castilla del Oro*<sup>1</sup> by the Spanish conquistadors, the Isthmus of Panama has been distinguished, politically as well as geographically, as something special, something that formed a separate, homogeneous, and definite unit distinct from adjacent entities.

Sociology and geography have united in the course of centuries to mark out the political destiny of the Isthmus. Panama, a narrow strip joining the Americas and separating two great oceans, has always had a high mission to perform and peculiar necessities to satisfy. As Tomás Herrera eloquently said in 1840: "The Isthmus owes to the commerce of the civilized world those services which the Creator intended it to render when He drew the oceans nigh to each other and bowed down the lofty Cordillera of the Andes."

Interoceanic traffic, to and fro, varying in importance with the times, carried out by different means according to the development of transportation and the greater or lesser popularity of the several maritime routes, has been the vital service which the Isthmus has rendered to civilization. In colonial days these services took the picturesque and romantic form of the Porto Bello<sup>2</sup> fairs and of the Spanish galleons which carried the gold and silver of the Indies to the mother country and brought to the colonies the merchandise of Castile. Subsequent to the period in which Panama was the treasure chest of the Spanish Kings came the California gold rush, when many of the "Forty-niners" bound from the eastern seaboard of the United States to the western, preferred the Panama route to the long trek across the desert and the Rocky Mountains. Then followed the days of the Panama Railroad, the first transcontinental railway built in America, which for eighty years was the connecting link between the

<sup>1</sup> "Golden Castile", a name given to the Isthmus of Panama in the early days of the discovery. This was before Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean. Two governorships were created in 1508. Alonso de Ojeda was given the region called *Nueva Andalucía* from the Gulf of Urabá to Cape La Vela. Diego de Nicuesa obtained command from Urabá westward to Cape Gracias a Dios, and this region was called *Castilla del Oro*.—*Translator's note*.

<sup>2</sup> Porto Bello, a harbor on the Atlantic coast of Panama, was discovered and named by Columbus in 1502. The city was founded by Francisco Valverde y Mercado on March 20, 1597. Strongly fortified, it soon became one of the richest and most populous in America because of its location between the two oceans, the facilities of its port, and its nearness to Panama. Evidence of its prosperity was the great annual fair in which the merchants of Spain and Peru exchanged their merchandise under the supervision of the Panamanian authorities.—*Translator's note*.



fleets which plied the Atlantic and the Pacific. At length the facilities which Panama offered to maritime commerce found final expression in the construction of the interoceanic canal, that marvelous achievement which has shortened distances and by dividing the land of Panama has united the peoples of the world.

In the discharge of the historic mission which nature imposed upon the Isthmus of Panama it was natural that its population should develop special needs different from those of adjacent political units. A people that lived for traffic and by traffic needed laws favorable to the free and safe passage of persons and merchandise across the world's bridge. A people thus maintaining itself in permanent contact with men from other lands, whose territory was the meeting place of all races and all civilizations, was bound to develop a distinctly liberal and cosmopolitan mentality, radically different from that of its neighbors, whose centers of population were on the Andine plateaus far from the sea.

For that reason, when the Isthmus of Panama has been united with neighboring territorial divisions, the unions have been artificial, the only bond being merely political. From the sociological point of view there was as much reason for Panama to form part of the Captaincy General of Guatemala as there was for it to be attached to the Viceroyalty of New Granada. From the geographical point of view it would be difficult to hold that communications between Panama and the administrative centers of these two colonial units were easier with one than with the other. And if territorial contiguity is disregarded and only facility of communication and commercial intercourse taken into account, it will be found that Panama had closer ties with the Viceroyalty of Peru than with either Guatemala or New Granada.

So it is that we are faced with the historical fact that the ancient *Gobierno de Tierra Firme*<sup>3</sup> kept itself separate in law or in fact from contiguous colonial entities. To the Spanish Crown *Tierra Firme* was always something special and apart from them and for that reason the mother country dealt directly with its authorities. In 1538 the Audiencia of Panama was created as a political division independent from other colonial units, and the members of the Panamanian cabildo were privileged to call themselves *Venticuatros*, like those of Seville and Cordoba. When the Audiencia of Panama was abolished in 1543 the *Gobierno de Tierra Firme* was placed under the Audiencia de los Confines, whose seat was in Guatemala. This change was short-lived, for five years later (in 1548) Panama was separated from the Audiencia of Guatemala and placed under the Viceroyalty of Peru. This reorganization no doubt proved unsatisfactory to the

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<sup>3</sup> *Tierra Firme* was an expression generally used to designate the Isthmus of Panama in colonial days after the period of discovery. It superseded the old name of *Castilla del Oro*, used only in the period of discovery.—Translator's note.

Crown, for in 1563 the Audiencia de los Confines was abolished by royal order and the Audiencia of Panama reestablished with a jurisdiction extending on the Pacific from the port of Buenaventura (Colombia) to the Gulf of Fonseca in Nicaragua and on the Atlantic from the Province of Veragua to the Atrato River.

For almost two centuries Panama enjoyed this privileged position, which recognized its importance and its right to constitute a political unit. It was not until nearly the middle of the eighteenth century (1740) that the Isthmian provinces were incorporated into the Viceroyalty of New Granada, with which Panama maintained relations which were more nominal than effective. From 1812 to 1813 the Viceroy of New Granada exercised his authority from Panama, reestablishing the royal Audiencia there. The Isthmus sent delegates to the Spanish Cortes held at Cádiz, and the King gave Panama a commercial franchise which for a time greatly stimulated its prosperity. In 1820 Sámano, then Viceroy, again transferred to Panama the seat of the Viceroyalty of New Granada, which in fact remained there until Panama emancipated itself from Spain in 1821.

When Panama broke its ties with Spain it was a subject of deliberation whether the Isthmus should join Peru, with which it had close commercial and social relations, or the glorious Colombia, just created by the sword of Bolívar. The Panamanian people, dazzled by the epical achievements of the Liberator, decided to join Colombia, but the separatist movements of 1830, 1831, 1840, and 1861 were to prove that regionalism in the Isthmus was alive and persistent. The tendency toward local autonomy found satisfaction in the creation of the Isthmian Federal State in 1855 and later in the Colombian federal constitution of 1863, by which Panama was organized as a "sovereign state." The regionalistic sentiment, however, was suffocated in the centralist and conservative reaction of 1886, which converted the former sovereign state into a "department" governed by special laws.

This brief historical sketch shows that autonomy and independence have been a permanent tradition, tendency, and aspiration in the Isthmus of Panama and that therefore its manifest destiny was some day to obtain recognition as an independent member of the family of nations.

If the men who bring about the manifest destiny of a country are entitled to that renown which, transcending national boundaries, gives them a place in the history of the world, Manuel Amador Guerrero has won the pedestal in the hall of fame to which emancipators and builders of nations are entitled. That which was a noble aspiration of Tomás Herrera in 1840, which the political genius of Justo Arosemena strove for in 1855, which constituted the vehement desire of the Panamanian patriots throughout the various periods of the political life of their native country, was consummated perma-

nently and irrevocably by the efforts and the courage of Manuel Amador Guerrero in 1903. The energy, sagacity, and intelligence which Amador Guerrero displayed as a conspirator and as a revolutionary made him the undisputed leader of the movement of November 3 and later caused him to become the first president of the new republic.

Dazzling indeed is the spectacle of men who achieve great feats in their youth. The fire, the strength, the beauty of early youth are irresistibly attractive. One is spellbound when one thinks of Bolívar,



Courtesy of Ricardo J. Alfaro.

#### THE OLD CABILDO, PANAMA.

In this building were signed the proclamations of independence of November 28, 1821, September 26, 1830, July 9, 1831, November 18, 1840, and November 3, 1903.

who, before he was forty, had liberated three nations and had realized his grandiose creation of a Greater Colombia; of Iturbide, who was a gallant young man when he won the independence of Mexico; of O'Higgins, whose youthful head was wreathed with the immortal laurels won at Chacabuco and Maipó; of San Martín, who bore the standard of liberty through three countries when the ardor of youth had hardly given way to the calmness of maturity.

But if the feats of youth are brilliant, impressive also are those of men who do not bend under the weight of years but begin in their old



age the fundamental work of their lives. At an advanced age John Brown mounted the scaffold for the sake of the abolition of slavery, and thus crowned with martyrdom a crusade which began in the twilight of his life. Máximo Gómez embarked upon the final campaign for Cuban liberty when the snowy hair crowning his noble head contrasted sharply with his ardent spirit. Thomas Masaryk was an old man when he began his valiant crusade for the freedom of Czechoslovakia, and that brave octogenarian today continues to show himself a prodigy of mental and physical vigor as president of his native land.



MUNICIPAL BUILDING, PANAMA.

During the administration of President Amador Guerrero, this building was erected on the site of the old Cabildo.

Manuel Amador Guerrero had passed his seventieth birthday when he brought about the independence of Panama. At that advanced age he still had the impetuosity, the audacity, the enthusiasm, and the energy of youth.

In the lofty task to which Amador Guerrero consecrated the last five years of his life, he thought with the wisdom of age and acted with the energy of youth. No doubt he was aware of the enormous responsibilities that he was assuming, the risks to which he was exposing the land which, if not that of his birth, was the scene of his life work and the place where his affections had taken root. On more



than one occasion he may have thought that he, a man from the past, was not the one summoned to solve the great problems of the future. But valiant decisions and militant impulses prevailed. He conspired, traveled about, made propaganda, suffered disappointments, encountered obstacles, but his iron will kept him on the road to triumph or to death. As a man of action and vision he realized that in 1903 the time had come for Panama to cast the die as to its future: either it would become definitely free or it would continue to languish in economic penury and political insignificance. And in this dilemma, the aged patrician, who already had two generations of descendants; the peaceful citizen, who through his labor of half a century had accumulated a modest fortune, assuring him rest in his old age and ease for his family; the respected physician, who in a social, professional, and economic sense had attained everything that the environment in which he lived could offer him—that man thrust aside all selfish considerations to fling himself body and soul into an uncertain altruistic adventure. With the fearlessness, the vigor, and the boldness of youth, that energetic old man crossed his Rubicon, ran risks, and saw his efforts crowned with success. Nationalistic sentiment in Panama, which had lain dormant for three generations, awoke at the bugle call of 1903. The masses followed the white-haired leader, and the independence of Panama was a consummated and irrevocable fact.

Amador Guerrero has passed into history as the leader of the revolutionary movement of 1903 and the first President of the Republic of Panama. However, this was not the only occasion when he had taken part in public affairs, for he had played an important role in the political life of the sovereign State of Panama in the Granadine Confederation. Nevertheless, he was not a professional politician. He devoted his time primarily to the practice of medicine, in which he showed great skill and through which he won position, fame, and fortune. He was an eminent physician who took the interest of a good citizen in public affairs. Without ever abandoning completely his profession, he did not fail to play the part for which his superior qualities fitted him in the solution of important national questions.

Although the Isthmus was the historical stage for Manuel Amador Guerrero, it was not his native land. He was a member of a prominent family of Cartagena de Indias and was born in Turbaco, near that city, on June 30, 1833. Educated at the University of Cartagena, at the age of 22 he received his degree as doctor of medicine and surgery.

In 1855, six years after the discovery of gold in California, the movement of passengers across the Isthmus had brought back prosperity to that region. Transit was slow and difficult, and to

accelerate it a railway from sea to sea was planned. The project was carried through despite the wildness of the country and the inclemency of the climate, and at the time young Amador was receiving his university degree at Cartagena the whistle of the locomotive was reverberating for the first time through the Isthmian jungles.

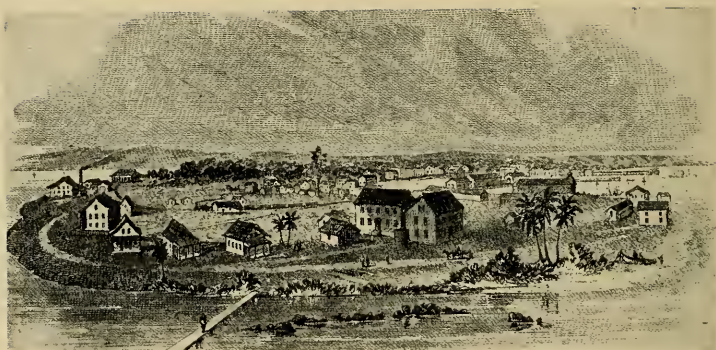
A lover of progress all his life, Amador decided to go where progress was making rapid strides. As an outgrowth of the construction of the railway the city of Colón had sprung up, shortly overshadowing Porto Bello. Amador Guerrero began to exercise his profession there. From Colón he later went to Panama, residing there permanently. *Ubi bene ibi Patria*. Panama was from that day the country of the young Granadine physician.

His activity in politics as a member of the Conservative Party brought him important posts. As a representative of the Province of Veraguas, he had for some time a seat in the Congress of New Granada. In 1866 he was elected First Designate to the Presidency of the sovereign State of Panama. The next year he was elected President, but an armed revolt prevented him from assuming office. Defeated and captured on the field of battle, he went into exile for a year.

The next period in the life of Amador Guerrero was not so troubled. Although he never ceased to take an active part in politics, he did not hold office again until 1886, when, following the resignation of General Santodomingo Vila as military and civil chief of the State, he temporarily assumed command.

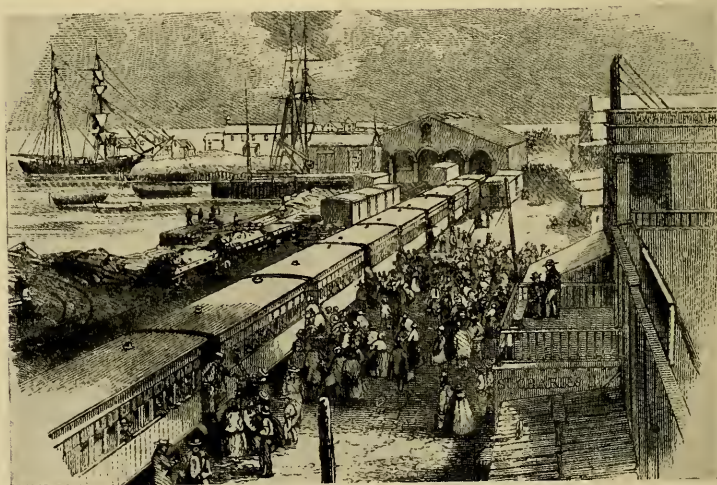
During the last thirty years of the nineteenth century Dr. Amador carried on a remarkable work on behalf of Santo Tomás Hospital, an old charitable institution founded during colonial days which, because of the chronic poverty of the country, had never been able fully to perform its humanitarian mission. As a constant member of the medical staff and as superintendent from time to time, Dr. Amador, who almost never received any remuneration, was the life and soul of the institution. To it he consecrated his efforts and philanthropic enthusiasm with exemplary and public-spirited abnegation.

In 1890 a question of vital importance to the Isthmus of Panama came up for discussion. It became evident that the French company which had begun the construction of the interoceanic canal was unable to finish it within the time stipulated in its concession. The company had been declared bankrupt by the French courts in 1889. Construction was almost entirely suspended and another terrible period of economic lethargy for the Isthmus was again setting in. There was hope that if the concession was extended the French company might be able to reorganize and finish a work so vital to the economic life of the country. Panama, directly affected by the crisis, decided to send to Bogotá a delegation of four representative



#### THE OLD CITY OF COLÓN

This city, formerly known as "Aspinwall", was founded in 1855 as the terminal of the first transcontinental railroad constructed in America. Above: The city of Aspinwall, from "Panama in 1855", by Robert Tones. Left: The port of Colón in 1857. Below: Train departure for Panama. The two last are reproduced from "History of the Panama Railroad", by F. N. Otis.





citizens to petition the Central Government for an extension of the concession. The commission was made up of Dr. Amador Guerrero; Pedro J. Sosa, a famous Panamanian engineer who, together with Wyse and Reclus, had surveyed and marked the route chosen for the canal; Dr. José Alejandro Peralta, the bishop of the diocese; and Ricardo Arango, a prominent citizen who later became Governor of the Department.

Success crowned the labors of the commission. The Colombian Government agreed to grant a ten-year extension to begin in 1894, by virtue of which it was possible to organize a new company and avoid a total loss. However, the enterprise was too severely crippled. The heavy expenditures of the first years had exhausted the original capital and it was evident that the cost of the enterprise was too great for the resources of a mere commercial company. The work continued in a perfunctory manner; the last efforts of the company were confined to saving as much as possible out of the wreck and preventing the expiration of the concession.

Meanwhile time flew. Poverty dug its claws deeper and deeper into the Isthmus. A revolution in 1895 increased public despair; and a bloodier and more devastating civil war, which broke out in October 1899 and did not end until November 1902, completed the ruin of Panama. Commerce, industry, agriculture, stock raising, and city property—everything was ruined. The prostration of the country brought to mind the words of Don Rufino José Cuervo when he crossed the Isthmus in the middle of the preceding century: "Anyone who wants to see Panama would better hurry; it is vanishing."

When all hope that the French company might be able to finish the canal had been lost, the company, as well as the Colombian Government, became firmly convinced that there was only one entity in the world with sufficient resources to carry out the work of uniting the two oceans—the Government of the United States. Likewise it was believed that that Government would construct the canal not so much as a commercial venture but as an instrument for national defense. When war was declared between the United States and Spain, the battleship *Oregon*, then in Californian waters, had to go around Cape Horn in order to join the Atlantic Fleet, arriving in Cuba in the nick of time to take part in the battle of Santiago. That memorable voyage, which kept the American people in suspense for almost the whole duration of the war, was a tangible example of what a canal would mean for the protection and security of the United States.

The interest of the American people in this matter was manifested by the passage of the Spooner bill, authorizing the President to negotiate a treaty with Colombia for the construction of the Panama



Canal and, if an agreement with that nation should not be reached, to initiate negotiations for the construction of a canal across Nicaragua.

The diplomatic negotiations between Colombia and the United States culminated in the Hay-Herrán Treaty, the object of long and impassioned debates in Colombia as well as Panama. It was finally rejected by the Colombian Congress in August 1903.

The rejection of the Hay-Herrán Treaty, as Pablo Arosemena said, "was the deathblow for the Isthmus of Panama. If another route were chosen for the construction of the maritime passage required by the world and by the peaceful development and even the security of the United States, the Isthmus would revert to the days of 1848,

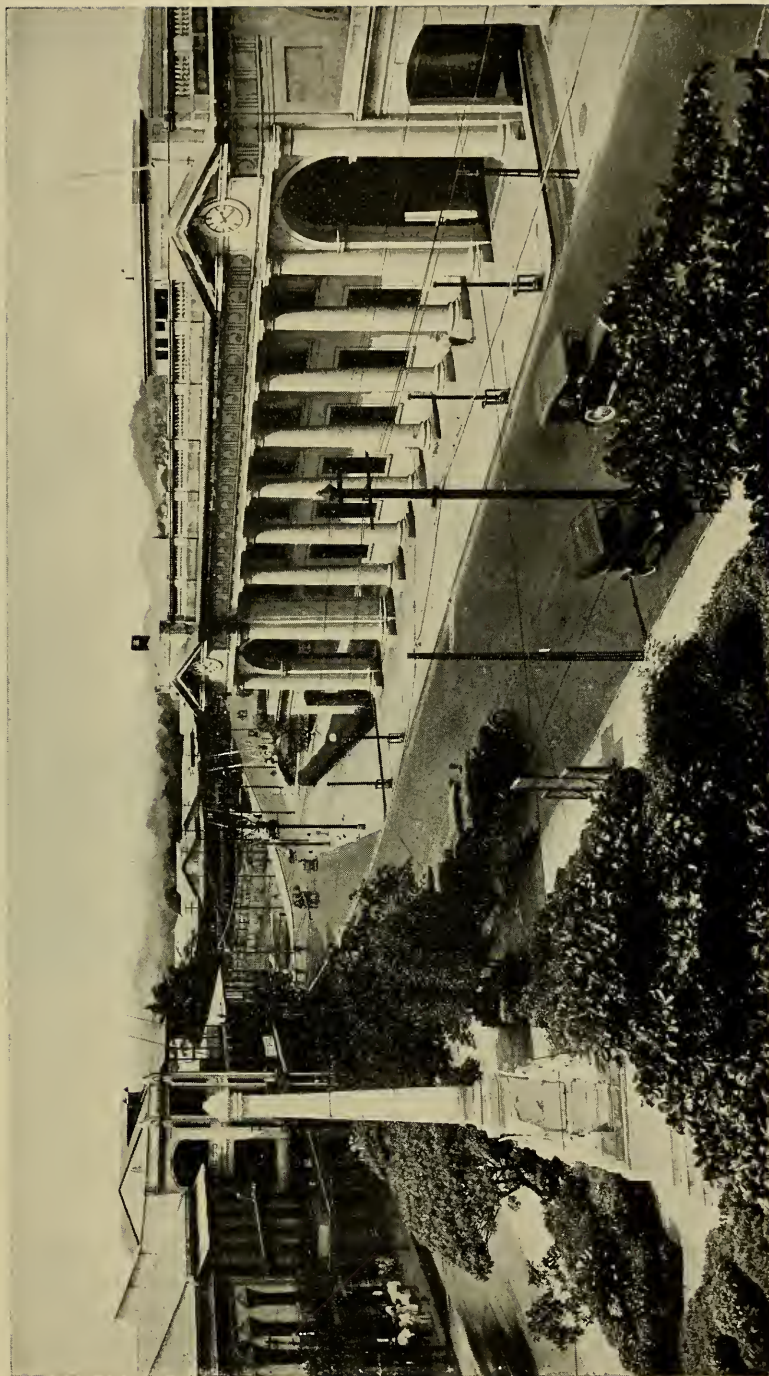


From "History of the Panama Railroad", by F. N. Otis.

THE ORIGINAL RAILROAD TERMINAL AT PANAMA CITY.

that is, to a situation bordering on destitution: a country which hardly gave signs of life; the last flares of a dying fire. The right to life is sacred, it cannot be renounced. Independence implied a painful sacrifice, but the welfare of the country was in danger and the rights of the nation over its citizens have no limits."

It would be a mistake, however, to consider the rejection of the Hay-Herrán Treaty as the sole and exclusive cause of the independence of Panama. No doubt it was the cause which started the movement, the spark which kindled anew the spirit of separation in the Isthmus. But this immediate cause would not have been sufficient to produce such a fundamental political transformation had it



Courtesy of the Panama Canal.

THE MODERN RAILWAY STATION, PANAMA CITY.



not been superimposed on old mediate causes and recent events which had accentuated the conviction among the inhabitants of the Isthmus that their welfare as a human collectivity demanded that they take into their own hands the direction of their destiny.

The aforementioned Dr. Arosemena, who was a Colombian at heart until the day of his death, but a Panamanian patriot above all, said in a notable monograph entitled *The secession of Panama and its causes*:

"I believe that the Independence of the Isthmus of Panama, achieved on the 3rd of November, 1903, was the result of the following causes:

"First: Geography.

"Second: *La Regeneración*, the name given in Colombian history to the political regime initiated by Dr. Rafael Núñez in 1884, which provoked the civil war of 1884-85, destroyed the federal system, abolished legality, and decreed the banishment of the best men in politics.

"Third: The conduct of the military leaders of both parties with respect to Panamanians during the civil war of 1901-2; and

"Fourth: The rejection by the Colombian Congress of the Hay-Herrán Treaty."

Amador Guerrero's intelligence was evinced in knowing these latent causes that on six different occasions from 1830 to 1903 had impelled the Isthmians to seek autonomy or independence; in realizing that the state of mind in Panama had remarkably revived the regionalist sentiment which had to be the logical basis of any nationalistic attempt; in correctly coming to the conclusion that the psychological moment had arrived to face once and for all the problem of independence; and in astutely making use of all the factors that favored the movement and gave it a reasonable chance of success. To this intelligence, this perspicacity, this political perception, it is but just to add the courage, the firmness, and the energy with which Manuel Amador Guerrero headed, directed, and consummated the separatist movement through which the Republic of Panama came into the family of nations.

For that reason the president of the Constituent Assembly could fairly and justly say to Amador Guerrero when he was elevated to the Presidency by the vote of the convention and the wishes of his fellow citizens:

"In unanimously electing you to the Presidency of the Republic for the first constitutional term of office, the Constituent Assembly has obeyed the implicit mandate of the people of the Isthmus. You were chosen by public opinion; as members of this body we have limited ourselves to legalizing a title which that master of democracies had already conferred upon you.

"Such an election was not the result of a momentary caprice of the people: it was enjoined by your honorable actions in the past; by the leading part which you took in the achievement of independence; by your loyalty to your pledged promise; by your love for Panama; by your rectitude and your resoluteness."

As President of the Republic, Amador Guerrero showed that the gifts of mind and character which he had already proven manifestly qualified him to head the Government. He had intelligence, composure, energy, ardent patriotism, a profound knowledge of the human



THE GOVERNMENT PALACE.

Another of the fine buildings constructed during the presidency of Dr. Amador Guerrero is the Palacio Nacional, which houses various executive departments.

heart, an unassailable integrity, and a deep feeling of pride in and responsibility for the great trust with which he had been honored.

The administration of Amador Guerrero laid the foundation of the national structure. In a country where hardly anything existed that was required by the moral and material life of a state, it was necessary to create everything. Public administration had to be organized; international relations established; the intellectual level raised; a citizenry formed which would be capable of self-government; industries stimulated; commerce protected; public wealth promoted; in a word, Panama had to give the decorous aspect of a nation to this poor province of incipient development and rudimentary culture



which cherished the ambition of occupying honorably a place in the international community.

In the execution of his plans for building up the Panamanian nation Manuel Amador Guerrero did a notable piece of work, laying down principles which have oriented all successive administrations.

In the field of material organization, he began by supplying the Government with appropriate office buildings which it lacked; the Government palace and the municipal theater were erected; the construction of good roads was initiated; bridges were built over the rivers most difficult to cross; national navigation for the coastwise trade was organized; piers were constructed in three of the principal ports; waterworks and sewerage systems were installed in the cities of Panama and Colón, and the antiquated cobblestone paving of the streets was replaced by bricks, giving a more attractive aspect to the city and improving its healthfulness and cleanliness.

No less notable was the work of administrative organization. Upon President Amador Guerrero fell the task of executing, regulating, and developing the numerous organic laws passed by the Legislative Assembly. The six million dollar fund preserved for posterity by the National Constitution was invested in New York. A monetary agreement was signed by which Panama assured the parity of its silver currency with American gold, and the former circulating medium was changed for silver coins 0.900 fine. The Republic joined the Universal Postal Union, and the postal service was greatly improved. For the first time in the country a Bureau of Statistics was established. Public revenues were carefully collected and conservation measures enacted.

Social welfare was greatly promoted by the reorganization and expansion of Santo Tomás Hospital, to which the President devoted his constant personal attention, as well as by the opening of the Maternity Hospital and the School of Obstetrics. Arrangements were also made for the establishment of a leprosarium and a hospital for the insane; the *Asilo Bolívar*, a home for the aged and infirm, was greatly improved.

Popular education found an enthusiastic champion in Amador Guerrero. In few branches of administration has greater progress been made in Panama, and the movement was given its start during the early days of the Republic. Numerous schools were opened and education oriented along modern and scientific lines. A large group of young men and women were sent to study abroad so that they would bring back to their country the knowledge acquired in the most advanced centers of civilization. A Vocational School was founded to train skilled artisans and avoid the necessity of bringing them from abroad. A School of Telegraphy and a school to promote the making of Panama hats in the interior were also established. As



THE CATHEDRAL AT PANAMA.

From the steps of the Cathedral, Theodore Roosevelt, on his visit to Panama in 1906, delivered an address in the presence of President Amador Guerrero and a great assembly gathered in Independence Plaza. This was the first time that a President of the United States had visited a foreign country. The second to do so was Taft, in 1910, and the third, Wilson, in 1919.

a brilliant example of its cultural development the Republic was also able to boast of a National Conservatory of Music and Oratory.

In the field of international affairs Amador Guerrero instituted consular and diplomatic relations with other nations, negotiated various treaties with the principal powers, and sent representatives to the Peace Conference at The Hague and to the Third International

Conference of American States at Rio de Janeiro. Animated by the fervent desire of renewing relations with the mother country, he initiated negotiations with Colombia which terminated with the signing of the tripartite treaties.<sup>4</sup> With Costa Rica he negotiated the best treaty with which to put an end to the old boundary dispute between the two countries.

While he was President of the Republic, Amador Guerrero received visits from the three most illustrious American public men of the time: William H. Taft, then Secretary of War, with whom the *modus vivendi* known by his name was negotiated to put an end to the tense situation which arose in 1904 over the question of the Canal Zone ports; Secretary of State Root, who ended in Panama the memorable tour which so effectively served to strengthen inter-American relations; and Theodore Roosevelt, first President in the history of the United States to set foot on foreign soil.

Highly significant were the proofs of esteem and appreciation which Amador Guerrero received from these great statesmen. I cannot but recall the following words of President Roosevelt in his address on November 15, 1906, from the steps of the Cathedral in the plaza where the oath of independence was sworn:

"It is but a few weeks since the Secretary of State of the American Republic, Secretary Root, was your guest here in this city, he having at that time finished a tour of South America, which in its interest and its far-reaching importance dwarfed anything of the kind that had ever hitherto been done by a Secretary of State of the American Republic, save only on the one or two occasions of absolute national importance in the great crises of the past. Mr. Root, President Amador, at that time spoke to you and your people, giving his assurance of the hearty friendliness of spirit of the Republic of the North in its relations toward you and your people; and I wish here with all the emphasis possible to make Mr. Root's words mine and to reiterate what he has said to you already, that the sole desire of the United States as regards the Republic of Panama is to see it increase in wealth, in numbers, in importance, until it becomes, as we earnestly hope it will become, one of the Republics whose history reflects honor upon the entire western world."

When the work of Amador Guerrero as first President of Panama is viewed with the perspective given by a quarter of a century, when one remembers what Panama was in 1904 and the transformation that had taken place by 1908, and when one considers the scarcity of resources of all kinds with which Amador Guerrero carried out his heavy task of organizing the Republic, one feels that posterity cannot but render homage to the memory of that strong, upright old man.

<sup>4</sup> Between Panama, Colombia, and the United States.—*Translator's note.*



Nevertheless, during his presidential term Amador Guerrero was to be made the victim of the passions engendered by political intrigue. He was attacked, reviled, and libeled in the most merciless fashion. He who had distinguished himself by his probity in the management of public funds was made the target of infamous charges of malversation. A leader placed in the Presidency with the enthusiastic approval of all his fellow citizens and the unanimous vote of all political parties, he was made the object of the most obdurate opposition. It may be that Amador Guerrero made mistakes, for "to err is human", especially on the part of those who, in the difficult task of governing, have to deal with the brittle, voluble, capricious, illogical, and unjust element of low politics and with the ambitions and covetousness of other men. But any fault that he may have committed he more than redressed through the spirit of conciliation of which he gave constant proof, by his unassailable personal integrity, and by the unshakeable respect that he always displayed for public rights. Amador Guerrero, a conservative by political faith, always sought the cooperation of his political adversaries and stoically endured the most violent attacks of the press, his acts and his conscience forming his shield and buckler. During his term of office political persecution was unknown; and during the storm of political passions which burst over the Republic during the last two years of his administration he still preserved his equanimity.

His term of office over, Manuel Amador Guerrero returned to the peace of his home to rest from labor and strife. Companioned by that superior woman who was his partner of a lifetime and who was so much admired because of her culture, her intelligence, and her beauty; fortified by the consciousness of duty well done and the great task accomplished; surrounded by the love of his family, the admiration of his fellow citizens, and the respect of his adversaries, he died on May 2, 1909. At his tomb fell the unchecked tears of the Republic which he had founded. Today, on the hundredth anniversary of his birth, Panama renews its homage to his revered memory and history writes in her annals with letters of gold the name of a great man whose work on earth decided the future of a nation.







Photograph by Underwood & Underwood.

DR. ENRIQUE BORDENAVE  
ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF PARAGUAY IN  
THE UNITED STATES.

## DR. ENRIQUE BORDENAVE, MINISTER OF PARAGUAY IN THE UNITED STATES

**D**R. ENRIQUE BORDENAVE, the new Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Paraguay in the United States and representative of his country on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, was born at Barrero Grande, and although still in his early forties, he has a long record of public service in his credit. He is a graduate of the Colegio Nacional in the Paraguayan capital and the Universities of Asunción and Buenos Aires, his degree of doctor of laws and social sciences having been received in 1915.

During the administration of Señor Eduardo Schaerer (1912-1916) he served as secretary to the President of the Republic; for a time he also taught contemporaneous history at the Colegio Nacional and economics, finance and international law at the University of Asunción. In 1921 he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, and three years later was appointed Minister of Justice and Public Instruction. During his term of office he was influential in securing the establishment of an agricultural college at Trinidad and the passage by Congress of the law which reorganized primary education in Paraguay. After the death of Dr. Manuel Peña in 1925 he held the portfolio of Foreign Affairs until the end of the administration of Dr. Eligio Ayala. Paraguayan currency was stabilized while he was head of the Exchange Office in 1923. During the course of his public career Dr. Bordenave has represented Paraguay at the Conference on Uniform Legislation, Buenos Aires, 1916; the Pan American Financial Congress, Washington, 1920; the inauguration of President Machado, Habana, 1929; and on the Commission of Inquiry and Conciliation Bolivia-Paraguay, Washington, 1929.

Dr. Bordenave is well known in Paraguay not only as an educator and statesman but also as a journalist and editor of *El Diario*, the oldest paper in the country. He is also identified with the stock-raising industry of Paraguay; he was the founder and president of the Industria Paraguaya de Carnes, S.A. Another enterprise with which he was connected as an officer was the Corporación Paraguaya, the company in charge of Mennonite colonization. At the time of his appointment as Minister to Washington, Dr. Bordenave was a senator in the National Congress.

## COLOMBIA CONFERS THE ORDER OF BOYACÁ ON THE DIRECTOR GENERAL OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

“THIRTEEN years devoted with high-mindedness and untiring activity to the service of the Pan American Union; thirteen years of persevering study of the problems of America, of attendance at its assemblies, of acquaintance with its most eminent statesmen and personal contact with them; thirteen years in which you have been the strongest link between Spanish America and Anglo-Saxon America and in which you have fostered their mutual understanding, the necessary foundation for the development of their relations; these thirteen years replete with accomplishment fully justify me in saying: You are a good citizen of this continent.”

These were the opening remarks of His Excellency Dr. Fabio Lozano, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Colombia in the United States, when on May 23, 1933, he presented to Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, the insignia of Grand Officer of the Order of Boyacá, conferred upon him by the Government of Colombia for his services to Pan Americanism. Dr. Lozano continued:

From the very dawn of our independence Colombia had the high honor of proclaiming and guiding the harmony and solidarity of the nations of America. Indeed, on May 28, 1811, there was signed in Sante Fe de Bogotá by Don Jorge Tadeo Lozano, the President of Cundinamarca—today Colombia—and Canon José Cortés Madariaga, the representative of the incipient Republic of Venezuela, a treaty of friendship, alliance, and federative union between the two States which guaranteed the integrity of their respective territory, and added: “Other nations which may be formed in the rest of America shall be admitted as co-states to the General Federation, with equality of rights and representation.” An extraordinary and surprising declaration in those times, which shows the far-sighted and statesmanlike vision of the authors of the treaty and which constitutes the point of departure for the great work of Pan Americanism realized in the one hundred and twenty-two years which have since passed.

Later, after New Granada had become independent in 1819, and Greater Colombia had been created in 1821 by the union of Venezuela, New Granada and Ecuador, Bolívar, the President of the new and powerful country, sent representatives invested with the powers of ministers plenipotentiary to the nations in the center and south of the continent, and to those as far north as Mexico, to propose treaties of union, alliance, and federation. Many such treaties were agreed upon and signed and gave rise to the Congress of Panama in 1826, which was an expression of the Bogotá Pact of 1811, and the definite historical foundation of every future organization designed to strengthen union,



THE DIRECTOR GENERAL OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION RECEIVES THE ORDER OF BOYACÁ.

Dr. Fabio Lozano, the Minister of Colombia at Washington, in the name of Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera, the President of that Republic, presented the insignia of a Grand Officer of the Order of Boyacá to Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union. The ceremony took place at the Colombian Legation on May 23, 1933.

to maintain peace and to create a system based on mutual respect, justice and law in the international life of America.

Colombia has always believed that the welfare of nations is not enclosed within the walls of a rude and aggressive nationalism, but that it dwells in the generous conception and honorable practice of a widespread desire for good will and cooperation which, by regarding sympathetically the welfare of others, quickens and invigorates its own. It is for this reason that Pan Americanism finds my country one of its strongest pillars.

As an assiduous servant of Pan Americanism, you have won, Dr. Rowe, the appreciative esteem of Colombia, and the President, Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera, desirous of giving you tangible proof thereof, has conferred upon you the insignia of a Grand Officer of the Order of Boyacá, which I have peculiar pleasure in presenting to you in his name.

Dr. Rowe then responded as follows:

YOUR EXCELLENCY:

I cannot find words adequate to express my gratitude for the high honor conferred upon me by the Government of Colombia. Generous as have been your



references to me personally, Mr. Minister, I cannot help but feel that this honor is primarily a tribute to the cause to which I have been privileged to devote the greater part of my life. To your country and especially to its distinguished President, Dr. Olaya Herrera, belongs the honor of ever having held high and unassailable the great cause of Pan American cooperation and understanding. The record of your country in this respect is one of which you may well be proud. Because of this record the entire continent owes to Colombia a deep debt of gratitude.

The honor which you have today conferred upon me, Mr. Minister, adds another to the many ties which bind me to your country and to your people, and I beg of you to transmit to the distinguished President of Colombia and to the members of your Government my heartfelt thanks and warmest expression of appreciation.

The order of Boyacá derives its name from the famous battle of Boyacá on August 7, 1819, in which Bolívar consummated the independence of Colombia by defeating a superior Spanish force. To commemorate its centenary a military decoration known as the "Cross of Boyacá" was established in 1919. Since 1930 this order has been granted to reward civic virtues as well as military valor.

On the same day Mr. Walter J. Donnelly, commercial attaché of the United States at Bogotá, was presented with the insignia of Officer of the Order of Boyacá.



# PROGRAM AND REGULATIONS OF THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

THE Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its session of May 31, 1933, approved the following program of the Seventh International Conference of American States which is to meet at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December of this year.

## CHAPTER I

### ORGANIZATION OF PEACE

1. Methods for the prevention and pacific settlement of inter-American conflicts.
2. (a) Inter-American Commissions of Conciliation.  
(b) Report of the Permanent Commission of Conciliation of Washington on its activities.
3. Declaration of August 3, 1932.
4. Anti-War Pacts—Argentine Plan.
5. Consideration of a plan to secure the prompt ratification of the General Treaty of Inter-American Arbitration and of the General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation of January 5, 1929, and in general to secure the prompt ratification of treaties and conventions and the early application of the resolutions adopted at the International Conferences of American States.

## CHAPTER II

### PROBLEMS OF INTERNATIONAL LAW

6. Method for the progressive codification of international law, and consideration of topics susceptible of codification, such as:
  - (a) The rights and duties of States.
  - (b) Treaties and their interpretation.
  - (c) International responsibility of States, with special reference to the denial of justice.
  - (d) Definition, duration, and reciprocity of political asylum.
  - (e) Extradition.
  - (f) Nationality.
  - (g) Territorial sea.
7. Report of the Permanent Committee on Public International Law of Rio de Janeiro on the general principles which may facilitate regional agreements between adjacent states on the industrial and

agricultural use of the waters of international rivers, and reports of the said committee and of the Permanent Committee on Private International Law of Montevideo on the matters provided for in the resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States of February 18, 1928.

### CHAPTER III

#### POLITICAL AND CIVIL RIGHTS OF WOMEN

8. Report of the Inter-American Commission of Women on the political and civil equality of women.

### CHAPTER IV

#### ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL PROBLEMS

9. Consideration of the recommendations of the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference relative to:

(a) Customs duties.

(b) Currency stabilization and the possibility of adopting a uniform monetary system.

(c) Commercial arbitration.

(d) Promotion of tourist travel.

10. Import quotas.

11. Import prohibitions.

12. Collective commercial treaties.

13. Report on the resolutions of the Inter-American Conference on Agriculture.

14. Report on the establishment of an Inter-American economic and financial organization under the auspices of the Pan American Union.

15. The inter-American protection of patents of invention.

16. Consideration of the draft convention on customs procedure and port formalities formulated by the Pan American Commission on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities which met at Washington from November 18 to 26, 1929.

17. Consideration of projects of uniform legislation relative to such topics as:

(a) Bills of exchange, checks, and other commercial paper.

(b) Bills of lading.

(c) Insurance.

(d) Simplification and standardization of the requirements for powers of attorney.

(e) Juridical personality of foreign companies.

(f) The losses caused by theft and pilferage of cargo in maritime commerce.

(g) Any other draft conventions on uniform legislation relative to commercial and maritime law that may be formulated by the Permanent Committee on Comparative Legislation and Uniformity of Legislation established at Habana by virtue of the resolution of February 18, 1928, of the Sixth Conference.

## CHAPTER V

### SOCIAL PROBLEMS

18. Consideration of the establishment of an Inter-American Bureau of Labor, which will include in its program the following:

(a) Improvement of the condition of living of workmen:

(1) Promotion of safety in industry.

(2) Improved housing conditions.

(b) Social insurance: Unemployment and practical forms of unemployment insurance.

(c) Uniformity of demographic statistics.

19. Results of national and international conferences on child welfare, with a view to broadening the work of the Inter-American Institute at Montevideo.

20. Application to foodstuffs and pharmaceutical products exported to other American countries, of the same sanitary, pure food, and drug regulations which are in effect in the country of production on all those commodities consumed therein.

## CHAPTER VI

### INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION

21. Inter-American copyright protection, and the possibility of reconciling the Habana and Rome conventions.

22. American bibliography:

(a) Exchange of information.

(b) Encouraging national and continental bibliographic effort.

23. Report on the results of the Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators, which met at Habana in February 1930.

24. International cooperation to make effective respect for and conservation of the national domain over historical monuments and archeological remains.

## CHAPTER VII

### TRANSPORTATION

25. Inter-American fluvial navigation: Reports of the Governments on technical studies relative to the navigation of rivers and the elimination of obstacles to navigation, and the possibility of connecting or bettering the connections which exist between them.

26. Report of the Pan American Railway Committee.



27. Study of the penal provisions and of the regulations of the Convention on Commercial Aviation signed at the Sixth International Conference of American States.

## CHAPTER VIII

### INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES OF AMERICAN STATES

28. Results of the International Conferences of American States.

(a) Reports submitted by the delegations on the action taken by the States on the conventions and resolutions adopted at the Pan American Conferences, with special reference to the Sixth Conference.

(b) Results, not specifically included in other sections of this program, of the special conferences held in the interval between the Sixth and Seventh International Conferences of American States and of the permanent institutions established by the International Conferences.

29. Convocation, participation, and meeting of future conferences, and adhesion of nonsignatory states.

(a) Consideration of the extraordinary convocation of the International Conferences of American States.

(b) Participation in the Pan American Conferences, and the adhesion of nonsignatory states to the conventions signed at such conferences.

(c) Future International Conferences of American States.

## REGULATIONS OF THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES<sup>1</sup>

### CHAPTER I

#### PERSONNEL OF THE CONFERENCE

##### *Section I*

#### TEMPORARY PRESIDENT

ART. 1. The President of the Republic of Uruguay shall designate the temporary president who shall preside at the opening session and shall continue to preside until the Conference elects a permanent president.

##### *Section II*

#### PERMANENT PRESIDENT

ART. 2. The permanent president of the Conference shall be elected by an absolute majority of the States represented at the Conference.

ART. 3. The duties of the permanent president shall be:

*First.* To preside at the meetings of the Conference and to submit for consideration in their regular order the subjects contained in the order of the day.

<sup>1</sup> Approved by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at the session of May 4, 1932.

*Second.* To concede the floor to the delegates in the order in which they may have requested it.

*Third.* To decide all questions of order raised during the debates of the Conference. Nevertheless, if any delegate shall so request, the ruling made by the chair shall be submitted to the Conference for decision.

*Fourth.* To call for votes and to announce the result of the vote to the Conference, as provided for by article 17.

*Fifth.* To transmit to the delegates in advance, through the secretary general, the order of business of each plenary session.

*Sixth.* To direct the secretary, after the approval of the minutes, to lay before the Conference such matters as may have been presented since the last meeting.

*Seventh.* To prescribe all necessary measures for the maintenance of order and strict compliance with the regulations.

### *Section III*

#### VICE PRESIDENTS

ART. 4. In the first session there shall be settled by lot the numerical order of the delegations for the purpose of establishing the order of precedence of their location. In this order the presidents of the delegations shall be called to occupy the chair in the absence of the president as provided by these regulations.

ART. 5. In case of the absence of the president, the respective vice president shall perform the duties of president in accordance with article 3.

### *Section IV*

#### SECRETARY GENERAL

ART. 6. The secretary general of the Conference shall be appointed by the President of the Republic of Uruguay.

ART. 7. The duties of the secretary general are:

*First.* To organize, direct, and coordinate the work of the assistant secretaries, secretaries of committees, interpreters, clerks, and other employees which the Government of Uruguay may appoint for service with the secretariat of the Conference.

*Second.* To receive, distribute, and answer the official correspondence of the Conference in conformity with the resolutions of that body.

*Third.* To prepare, or cause to be prepared under his supervision, the minutes of the meeting in conformity with the notes the secretaries shall furnish him; and to distribute among the delegates, before each session, printed or mimeographed copies of the minutes of the previous session, for the consideration of the Conference.

*Fourth.* To revise the translations made by the interpreters of the Conference.

*Fifth.* To distribute among the committees the matters on which they are required to present reports, and place at the disposal of the committees everything that may be necessary for the discharge of their duties.

*Sixth.* To prepare the order of the day in conformity with the instructions of the president.

*Seventh.* To be the intermediary between the delegations or their respective members in matters relating to the Conference and between the delegates and the Uruguayan authorities.

*Eighth.* To transmit the original minutes of the Conference and of the committees to the Director General of the Pan American Union for preservation in the archives of the Union.

*Ninth.* To perform such other functions as may be assigned to him by the regulations, by the Conference, or the President.

## CHAPTER II

### COMMITTEES OF THE CONFERENCE

ART. 8. Such committees as the Conference may consider necessary shall be organized to study, report, and formulate projects on the topics of the program. Each delegation shall be entitled to be represented by one or more of their members on each committee. The president of the Conference shall designate the membership of the committees in accordance with the lists submitted by the presidents of delegations, indicating the members of the delegations who are to serve on each committee.

A Committee on Initiatives shall be organized, composed of the presidents of delegations and presided over by the president of the Conference.

At the first plenary session the president, with the approval of the Conference, shall name a Committee on Credentials.

ART. 9. Each committee shall elect from among its members a chairman and vice chairman.

ART. 10. The chairman of each committee shall appoint a reporting delegate for each topic or each group of related topics. The functions of the reporting delegates shall be:

*First.* To initiate the discussion of the question under consideration and present a report containing the antecedents and an analysis of the various aspects of the question, which shall serve as a basis of discussion.

*Second.* At the conclusion of the discussion, the reporting delegate shall summarize the debate in a report and shall formulate, in accordance with the opinion of the majority of the committee, the project which, after approval by the committee, shall be submitted to the Conference. A general reporting delegate may be appointed to submit the conclusions of the committee to the Conference.

*Third.* The minority group of a committee shall have the right to designate a reporting delegate to present their views to the Conference, and the project which they may formulate.

## CHAPTER III

### THE DELEGATIONS

ART. 11. Delegates may speak in their own languages from manuscript or otherwise. The interpreters shall render a summary of the speech in the other official languages of the conference, unless the speaker or any delegate may request a complete translation of his remarks.

The interpreters shall also render in the other official languages the remarks of the president and secretary general of the Conference.

ART. 12. Any delegate may submit to the Conference his written opinion upon the matter under discussion, and may request that it be spread upon the minutes of the meeting in which it has been submitted.

A delegation not present at the session may deposit or transmit its vote in writing to the secretary. In this event, the delegation shall be considered as present and its vote counted.

ART. 13. The Director General of the Pan American Union shall be considered as a member *ex officio* of the Conference, but without a right to vote.

## CHAPTER IV

## MEETINGS OF THE CONFERENCE AND THE COMMITTEES

ART. 14. The first meeting shall be held at the time and place designated by the Government of Uruguay, and the further sessions on such days as the Conference may determine.

ART. 15. To hold a meeting it is necessary that a majority of the nations attending the conference be represented by at least one of their delegates.

ART. 16. At the opening of the meeting the secretary general shall read the minutes of the preceding meeting, unless such reading is dispensed with. Notes shall be taken of any remarks the president or any of the delegates may make thereon, and approval of the minutes shall be in order.

ART. 17. In the deliberations in the plenary sessions as well as in the committees, the delegation of each Republic represented at the Conference shall have but one vote, and the votes shall be taken separately by countries and shall be recorded in the minutes.

Votes as a general rule shall be taken orally, unless any delegate should request that they be taken in writing. In this case each delegation shall deposit in an urn a ballot containing the name of the nation which it represents and the sense in which the vote is cast. The secretary shall read aloud these ballots and count the votes.

ART. 18. The Conference shall not proceed to vote on any report, project, or proposal relating to any of the subjects included in the program, except when at least two thirds of the nations attending the Conference are represented by one or more delegates.

ART. 19. All proposals amending the motion, project, or resolution under consideration shall be referred to the respective committee, unless the Conference shall by a two-thirds vote decide otherwise.

ART. 20. Amendments shall be submitted for discussion and put to a vote before the article or motion the text of which they are intended to modify is acted upon.

ART. 21. The Conference may, by a two-thirds vote of the delegations present, suspend the rules and proceed to the consideration of a motion, provided, however, that in all cases the procedure with respect to new topics as set forth in article 25 shall be followed.

ART. 22. Except in cases expressly indicated in these regulations, proposals, reports, and projects under consideration by the Conference shall be considered approved when they have obtained the affirmative vote of an absolute majority of the delegations represented by one or more of their members at the meeting where the vote is taken. The delegation which may have sent its vote to the secretary shall be considered as present at the meeting.

ART. 23. The following may attend the sessions of the Conference and of the committees: The delegates with their respective secretaries and attachés; the Director General and other accredited representatives of the Pan American Union; the secretaries and members of the secretariat of the Conference; duly accredited representatives of the press; and any others to whom the Conference may by a majority vote extend this privilege.

At the request of any delegation the Conference may agree to go into secret session. A motion to this effect shall immediately be put and voted upon without discussion.

At the close of the session the secretary general shall issue to the press a statement summarizing the results of the session, except in the event set forth in the



preceding paragraph, in which case the Conference shall decide as to the publication of the results of the session.

ART. 24. The official languages of the Conference shall be Spanish, English, Portuguese, and French. The reports, projects, and other documents shall be printed and submitted to the consideration of the Conference and of the committees at least in Spanish and English.

The reports and projects shall be submitted for discussion at a meeting subsequent to that at which they were distributed.

## CHAPTER V

### NEW TOPICS

ART. 25. If any delegation should propose for the consideration of the Conference a topic not included in the program, the topic shall be referred to the Committee on Initiatives, and after submission of its report and acceptance by a two-thirds vote of the delegations, the topic shall be referred to the respective technical committee.

## CHAPTER VI

### *Section I*

#### MINUTES OF THE SESSIONS

ART. 26. The minutes approved by the Conference shall be signed by the president and the secretary general. The minutes approved by the committees shall be signed by the respective presidents and secretaries. The minutes shall be printed in Spanish, English, Portuguese, and French, in pages of two columns, and a sufficient number of copies shall be issued so that each delegate may receive four copies. The original minutes shall be preserved in the archives of the Pan American Union.

### *Section II*

#### FINAL ACT

ART. 27. The final act shall be prepared as the work of the Conference develops. After each plenary session there shall be inserted in the draft of the final act, with a number and a title indicating the subject matter, the treaties, conventions, resolutions, agreements, votes, and recommendations approved at the session and the date of the session on which they were approved. The day before the closing of the Conference the secretary general shall submit to the delegates for examination copies of the final act in Spanish, English, Portuguese, and French. The delegates shall communicate to the secretary general whatever comments they may have to make with respect to the drafting of the final act. The original of the final act shall be signed by the delegations at the closing session of the Conference and transmitted by the secretary general to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Uruguay in order that certified copies may be sent to the Governments of the American Republics and to the Pan American Union within ninety days following the close of the Conference.

## CHAPTER VII

### DIPLOMATIC INSTRUMENTS

ART. 28. Immediately after the approval of a treaty or convention the original instrument shall be drafted in Spanish, English, Portuguese, and French and submitted to the delegations for examination, and shall be signed at the final

session. After signature, the instrument shall be transmitted by the secretary general of the Conference to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Uruguay, who shall transmit certified copies to the Governments of the American Republics represented at the Conference and to the Pan American Union.

The signatory States shall deposit in the Pan American Union the instruments of ratification of the treaties and conventions signed at the Seventh International Conference of American States, and the Pan American Union shall notify the other signatory States of the deposit.

## CHAPTER VIII

### AMENDMENTS TO THE REGULATIONS

ART. 29. These regulations, after approval by the Governing Board, shall be transmitted to the Seventh International Conference, through the intermediary of the Government of the Republic of Uruguay. The regulations shall be subject to such modifications as may be determined by a vote of two thirds of the delegations at the Conference.



# SOME SIXTEENTH CENTURY HISTORIES AND HISTORIANS OF AMERICA

By A. CURTIS WILGUS

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(Part I)

WHETHER or not the sixteenth century was the greatest of centuries, it was certainly a great time in which to be alive. Everywhere the problems raised by the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the discovery of a new world occupied men's minds. Particularly was western and southern Europe affected, and more especially the peoples of the Iberian peninsula. There, in the midst of great events, the imagination was quickened and thought was stimulated. Men were sailing westward in large numbers, many to return with wealth or glory or both, and all with strange and wondrous tales of new sights and new experiences. The desire for information concerning the Indies was everywhere intense, and the demand encouraged a literary effort that resulted in the production of a vast number of memoirs, letters, reports, relations, and histories of a high order seldom seen anywhere before or since. All aspiring writers took advantage of the abundant first-hand and second-hand information that inevitably resulted from the mechanical processes involved in the conquest of two continents. To keep one's sober literary composure and one's calm historical judgment was indeed a grave task amidst the enthusiasm and exuberance of the age. Yet most of the historians of the period achieved this state, and in consequence many of their works live today as classics of historical effort, and they themselves are remembered as Brobdingnagian leaders of a cultural advance.

## I

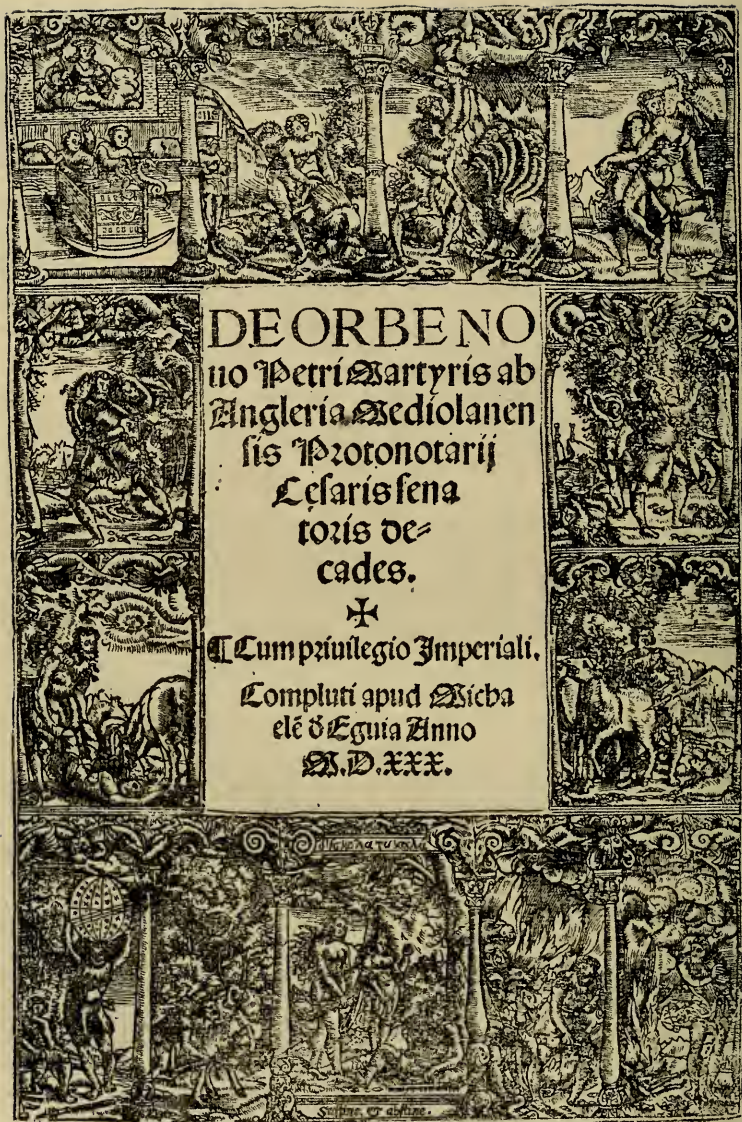
It is eminently fitting that the first historian of the new world, like its first discoverer, should have been an Italian who, like the Great Admiral, went to Spain to seek fame and reward. Pietro Martire d'Anghiera or, as he is commonly known, Peter Martyr, was born in Lombardy in north Italy, probably in the year 1457. Like other young men with noble blood in their veins, he was educated first at Milan in letters and chivalry, and later at Rome in academic expression among the intellectuals of that Renaissance day. While in this latter environment he indulged his love of writing in both prose and poetry, at the same time deciphering and translating ancient

inscriptions. Through these activities he won a leading place among contemporary thinkers. But in 1487, at the request of the emissary of Ferdinand and Isabella, he forsook these agreeable pleasures for new experiences and went to Spain in order, as he later flatteringly told the queen, to see the best-known woman in the world. Offered by Isabella the headship of a school for noble youths, Peter Martyr declined on the ground that he preferred to fight the infidel. Accordingly he took up the double role of soldier and historian during the stirring last years of the advance upon Granada, which he depicted in vivid language. But not content with these activities he added another role and became a priest of the Church, later taking holy orders. In the year 1492 a fourth was undertaken when he entered the queen's household as a combined courtier-teacher-chaplain. His next role was that of a diplomat; this he assumed in 1501 when he was sent by the Catholic Monarchs as ambassador to Egypt, where he acquitted himself well of a difficult task. While playing all of these parts he was constantly studying, investigating, and compiling historical facts.

After the death of Isabella in 1504 Peter Martyr remained close at court absorbing information and commenting upon interesting occurrences. In 1520, soon after the succession of Charles V to the Spanish throne, our author was made chief historiographer or chronicler to the Council of the Indies, and later secretary. In 1524, two years before his death, he was named abbot of Santiago in Jamaica, but he was never privileged to go to the New World. He died peacefully at Granada, where he was buried in September 1526.

Peter Martyr's busy life was filled with numerous literary undertakings, the most important of which relate to America. A friend of Columbus, he was the first to appreciate the great importance of the Admiral's discoveries. As early as 1494 Peter Martyr began to record in a series of letters called the *Ocean Decades* the history of the discovery and conquest as told to him by returning merchants and adventurers. This record he continued until his death. It was not, however, until 1511 that the complete first decade was published, although it had previously been stolen from its author and had appeared in incomplete form in Italian in the years 1504, 1507, and 1508. In 1516 the first three decades appeared in print in Latin at Alcalá under the title *De rebus oceanis et orbe novo decades tres . . . .* A fourth decade appeared in 1520 in Italian, German, and Latin editions, but no further decades were published during his lifetime. The first complete edition of the entire eight decades was printed in 1530 at Alcalá. This was translated into English and published at London in 1555. The whole work has undergone many translations and passed through innumerable editions and was widely quoted, especially in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and nineteenth centuries.





PETER MARTYR'S "DE ORBE NOVO DECADES."

This title page appeared in the complete edition of these letters by America's first historian, published at Alcalá, Spain, in 1530.

As a historian Peter Martyr was usually careful, often dry, frequently credulous, and sometimes biased. Yet his writing is marked by a keen insight into and a clear comprehension of problems which few of his contemporaries understood. Because of his contact with the early *conquistadores* and others returning from America and with the numerous documents which came into his hands because of his official position, his work constitutes a mine of information concerning the natives, the geography, and the natural history of the New World. He was a synthetic historian of the first rank.

## II

Another historian placed in an exceptional position to observe important events both in Europe and America was Gonzalo Fernández de Oviedo y Valdés, who was born of noble parents at Madrid in August 1478. While still comparatively a youth he became a page to the young Don Juan, son of Ferdinand and Isabella, whose death occurred in 1497. Like other young men in his station, Oviedo was educated formally but, inspired with ambition, he read more widely than most men of his time. Throughout his life in Spain he remained, like Peter Martyr, in close touch with the royal court, where he met all persons worth knowing and talked with many great *conquistadores*. He was present with the court at the fall of Granada in 1492 and took part in the reception given Columbus when the latter returned from his first voyage in 1493. The next year Oviedo temporarily entered the services of Frederic of Aragon, King of Naples, whither he betook himself, as always intent upon gaining new facts and experiences. In 1512 he became the Secretary of the Great Captain, Gonzalo Fernández de Córdoba. Finally, in 1514, at the age of 26, he went to America, where he took part in an expedition under Pedro Arias d'Ávila to Darien. On this adventure were many men destined later to great fame, including Diego de Almagro, Hernando de Soto, Francisco Vásquez de Coronado, Sebastián de Benalcázar, and others. On the mainland Oviedo was soon made *veedor* in Darien. Then followed other offices, including those of *regidor* and *teniente* in Tierra Firme, Governor of the Province of Cartagena, and *alcaide de la fortaleza* and *regidor* of Santo Domingo. Meanwhile Charles V had appointed Oviedo chief chronicler, and he became doubly interested in making observations and in recording notes for posterity. Between these several duties he found occasion to visit Spain several times and renew his contacts at court. In 1556 he returned to his motherland for the last time, dying the next year at Valladolid.





Courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington.

"LA HISTORIA GENERAL DE LAS INDIAS", BY OVIEDO.

Gonzalo Fernández de Oviedo y Valdés wrote this, his greatest work, during many years of residence and travel in the New World.

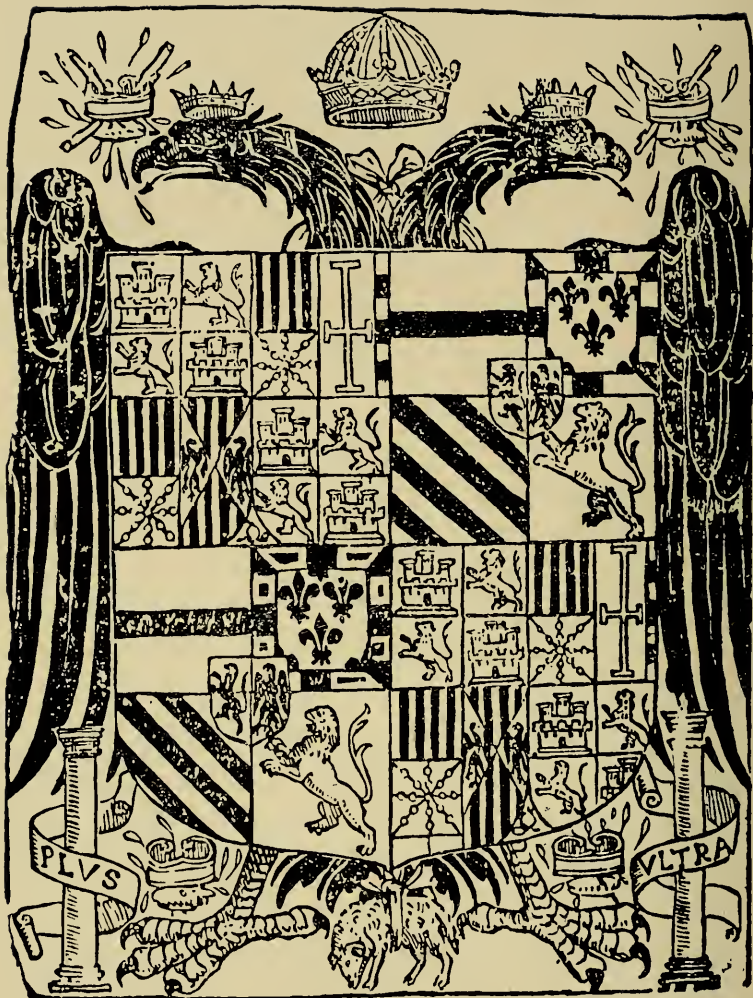
Oviedo was the author of many works, the first being a romance of chivalry published at Valencia in 1519. But he early turned his more serious attention to the task of recording what he heard and observed in America. His first publication of this nature, entitled *Sumario de la natural y general historia de las Indias* appeared at Toledo in 1526 and is now very rare. This was meant to be a preliminary account, and it was followed by his great work *La Historia general y natural de las Indias, islas, y tierra firme del mar océano*, the first 19 books of which were first printed at Seville in 1535. The twentieth book did not appear, however, until 1557, the year of his death. From the 1535 edition many translations have been made. The first one in English, by Richard Eden, appeared at London in 1555 under the title *General history of the West Indies*. No complete and satisfactory English translation, however, has ever been made of the work. Oviedo seems never to have finished the larger history that he planned, but between 1851 and 1855 there were published at Madrid four volumes containing 50 books, which form the most complete edition in existence.

Oviedo was interested in the welfare of the people of America, particularly of the natives. He showed himself a careful observer and a clear thinker, and was animated by the spirit of investigation. His writings were based upon some 24 years of first-hand observation of American affairs and upon personal association with the *conquistadores*. He was a versatile and facile writer, having an understanding nature and a desire for truth. Like Peter Martyr, he recorded a mass of information about geography, ethnology, archeology, and historical conditions. His work has been widely used by subsequent writers, and although it does not rank as high in the critical estimation of modern historians as it did in previous centuries, it may well be considered a classic of the sixteenth century.

### III

Like Peter Martyr, Francisco López de Gómara never went to America, yet he produced a work that for many years was held in high opinion by historians, and in consequence was more widely quoted than its importance deserved. The author was born in the village of Gómara in Castilla on February 2, 1511. In his late teens he became a priest and, again like Peter Martyr, served in Spain and Italy as a cleric. Like both Peter Martyr and Oviedo he came into intimate contact with men who had been to America. The most important of these was Hernando Cortés, whom he met while following the profession of arms at the siege of Algiers. Soon afterward Gómara became the chaplain and perhaps the confessor of Cortés, and fell under his spell to such an extent that he resolved to write





# **La historia de las Indias.** **y conquista de Mexico.** 1552.

"LA HISTORIA DE LAS INDIAS Y CONQUISTA DE MÉXICO."

Francisco López de Gómara's book on the history and conquest of the West Indies and Mexico, based on hearsay and the writings of others, was published in 1552 at Saragossa, Spain.

the history of his employer's activities in America. When his patron died in 1547 Gómara actively continued his literary efforts, which he brought to fruition in 1552 at Saragossa under the title *La historia de las Indias y conquista de Mérico*. The next year, however, much to the author's distress, the book was suppressed by the authorities mainly because it was supposed to misrepresent the truth.

As so often happened with sixteenth century works, this was translated early into other languages. In 1556 it was first printed in Italian, in 1568 in French, and in 1578 in English. The latter translation, which was republished in 1596, contained the part of the history dealing with Mexico. It bore the title *The Pleasant History of the Conquest of the West India Now Called New Spain*. Like Oviedo's work, Gómara's has never been completely translated into English.

Although Gómara, like Peter Martyr, was never in America but relied for most of his information upon hearsay and the writings of others, his history has never been ranked as high as the Italian's who, because of his advantageous position in the government, used many source materials. Yet Gómara produced, with rather free use of the imagination it is true, a picture of the native cultures of Peru and Mexico which is extremely interesting. Particularly are we indebted to this author for recording in his account what was believed at the time concerning these things. In this sense the history is of considerable value and its rank with the classics of historical writing of the century is doubtless justified.

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## UNITED STATES TRADE WITH LATIN AMERICA IN 1932

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

*Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union*

ACCORDING to statistics issued by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce, the total trade of the United States with the 20 Latin American republics for the year ended December 31, 1932, amounted to \$518,-916,000. Imports were valued at \$323,190,000, and exports at \$195,726,000. The total trade shows a falling off in value of 34.3 percent as compared with the preceding year. There was a decline of 32.4 percent in imports and 37.3 percent in exports.

Imports from the northern group of countries and from South America showed declines of 28.5 percent and 34.5 percent, respectively, as compared with 1931. In commenting on the decline in imports,

the Department of Commerce, in a recently issued summary of United States trade with the world in 1932, says:

Primarily as a result of a reduction in shipments of copper and sodium nitrate, imports from Chile decreased 69 percent in value. Imports from Argentina dropped 56 percent. The value of total imports from Colombia was 19 percent smaller, notwithstanding the increase in our quantity purchases of coffee. Imports from Cuba and Mexico showed decreases of 35 percent and 21 percent, respectively. . . . The decrease for Brazil was 25 percent.

Exports to the northern group of countries fell off 35.9 percent as compared with 1931, while those to South America declined 38.8 percent. Referring to the decrease in exports, the above mentioned report of the Department of Commerce states:

Among the South American countries, the value of exports to Brazil was slightly larger than in 1931, while for the other leading countries the decreases ranged from 35 percent for Venezuela to 83 percent for Chile. Exports to Argentina, the leading South American market, fell off 40 percent. Exports to Cuba and Mexico decreased 39 percent and 38 percent, respectively.

The following table shows the distribution of United States trade with Latin America for the 12 months ended December 1931 and 1932:

*Trade of the United States with Latin America, 12 months ended December*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i.e., 000 omitted]

Country	Imports		Exports		Total trade	
	1931	1932	1931	1932	1931	1932
Mexico.....	47, 612	37, 423	52, 366	32, 575	99, 978	69, 998
Guatemala.....	4, 651	4, 501	5, 196	2, 820	9, 847	7, 321
El Salvador.....	2, 231	1, 144	3, 483	2, 289	5, 714	3, 433
Honduras.....	11, 870	9, 004	5, 980	4, 475	17, 850	13, 479
Nicaragua.....	2, 382	1, 964	3, 565	1, 993	5, 947	3, 957
Costa Rica.....	3, 736	3, 687	3, 523	2, 435	7, 259	6, 122
Panama <sup>1</sup> .....	4, 590	3, 530	23, 552	15, 609	28, 142	19, 139
Cuba.....	90, 059	58, 330	46, 964	28, 775	137, 023	87, 105
Dominican Republic.....	5, 126	3, 380	6, 010	4, 630	11, 136	8, 010
Haiti.....	760	612	4, 822	4, 005	5, 582	4, 617
North American republics.....	173, 017	123, 575	155, 461	99, 606	328, 478	223, 181
Argentina.....	35, 980	15, 654	52, 652	31, 670	88, 632	47, 324
Bolivia <sup>2</sup> .....	43	6	1, 775	2, 160	1, 818	2, 166
Brazil.....	110, 212	82, 263	28, 579	28, 600	138, 791	110, 863
Chile.....	39, 977	12, 278	21, 462	3, 568	61, 439	15, 846
Colombia.....	75, 482	60, 846	16, 052	10, 670	91, 534	71, 516
Ecuador.....	3, 603	2, 386	2, 934	1, 754	6, 537	4, 140
Paraguay <sup>2</sup> .....	155	99	602	281	757	380
Peru.....	8, 974	3, 685	7, 935	3, 965	16, 909	7, 650
Uruguay.....	3, 877	2, 104	9, 519	3, 217	13, 396	5, 321
Venezuela.....	26, 845	20, 294	15, 646	10, 235	42, 491	30, 529
South American republics.....	305, 148	199, 615	157, 156	96, 120	462, 304	295, 735
Total Latin America.....	478, 165	323, 190	312, 617	195, 726	790, 782	518, 916

<sup>1</sup> Including Canal Zone.

<sup>2</sup> United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay but to the countries in which the ports of departure or entry are located.

# AGRICULTURAL PRICE-SUPPORTING MEASURES IN LATIN AMERICA<sup>1</sup>

By MYER LYNISKY

*Bureau of Agricultural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture*

IN the world-wide endeavor to restore prosperity, intervention by governments for the purpose of enabling farmers to maintain the prices of their produce has assumed a new prominence. In Latin America, where agriculture predominates, many important measures have appeared, exhibiting a bewildering degree of diversification. Fortunately, underlying most of these may be discerned a general principle which affords a basis for classification. Most price-supporting measures are in the main supply-controlling measures, for control of supply usually carries with it control of price. According to the universally recognized economic law, supply and price vary conversely; a smaller supply will call forth a higher price, and an increase in supply will result in a lower price.<sup>2</sup> The principal price-supporting measures in Latin-American countries have been designed largely for the immediate purpose of bringing about a restriction of supply, in order ultimately to bring about a rise in price.

In the Brazilian coffee defense, for example, exports to the world markets are restricted, the supply available for consumption is in turn moderated, and, finally, competition among buyers to secure their customary supplies tends to force up the price. Another important case of export restriction is the Cuban sugar control, involving international cooperation in the reduction of world supplies; here Cuba has agreed with other exporting countries to keep exports of sugar within specified limits. A third case of export restriction, on a smaller scale, is the Mexican henequen control. Most of the discussion below, it will be found, is devoted to the coffee and sugar controls, for these are among the world's most outstanding examples of agricultural price supporting.

Less important than the schemes of export restriction are those of export stimulation, which aim at reducing supplies in the domestic market. Stimulation may be furnished directly by the granting of export bounties as is illustrated in the case of Chile in connection with beans and apples. Or it may be furnished in less direct manner

<sup>1</sup> Based largely on materials prepared by the author in connection with U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Service Report No. F.S. 56, *Agricultural Price-Supporting Measures in Foreign Countries*, by Lynn Ramsay Edminster, Leo J. Schaben, and Myer Lynsky, which see for further details.

<sup>2</sup> In the usual statement of the law of supply and price, supply is expressed as dependent upon price and as varying directly with price.



through tariff bargaining by means of which entry to foreign markets is secured for home exports. Within the last year or so a significant movement has gotten under way in Latin America for the negotiation of international agreements for the purpose of improving foreign markets. Double column tariff schedules applying different rates of duty to imports coming from favored countries are being set up where formerly single column tariffs have been the rule. Brazil has negotiated a large number of temporary commercial agreements of the most-favored-nation type; Chile has undertaken a number; and several Latin-American countries are reported as negotiating with overseas countries for an amelioration of trade barriers. They have also treated with each other and agreements have been arranged between Chile and Peru and between Argentina and Chile looking to a freer movement of trade. A new departure in international negotiations was represented in the tri-partite economic conference held by Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay at Montevideo in December 1931. The conference studied the possibilities of rapprochement between Argentina and Brazil, and between Argentina and Uruguay, and examined into the possibility of joint action on the part of all three countries to promote their meat industries. In November 1932 the three countries met again to discuss their common problem of meat exports in connection with the recently imposed British import quotas on meat, and joined in a resolution to the effect that the Government of Great Britain be requested to apportion her total imports into quotas for each country.

A second type of price-supporting measure is the import restriction, a familiar example being the import duty. The first effect of the duty is to lower the foreign price for such part of the foreign product as is sold in the markets of the country imposing the duty. Receiving less for his goods sold through this outlet, the foreign exporter offers less for sale here. With fewer offerings, competition among buyers to secure their customary supplies tends to force up the price.

Practically all of the countries of Latin America have import duties and other forms of restriction upon imports, such as embargoes, milling and mixing regulations requiring the admixture of a definite percentage of home-grown products, import quotas, restrictions on foreign exchange, and even measures of sanitary control. Brazil, until very recently, had an embargo on wheat, and Argentina had seasonal embargoes on a number of fruits; Cuba has a mixing regulation requiring the use of domestically produced yuca flour in bakery products; and in Argentina restrictions on imports intended primarily for sanitation have had an economic effect on imports by reducing their volume. It must be noted in connection with the Latin American situation that measures of this type have proved relatively less

important than their prevalence might warrant. This arises from the fact that where a product is produced in excess of domestic requirements, restrictions upon imports are in general a rather futile form of control, for in such a situation, regardless of foreign supplies, there exists such a plethora of the commodity in question that the normal degree of competition among buyers continues unchanged and the price continues unaffected by the duty.

A third and relatively less important type of price-supporting measure is that which affects supply and international trade largely in an indirect manner, its initial effect being upon domestic prices or production. Here may be placed the fixing of milk prices in Cuba, the supervision of the grain exchanges in Argentina, the wheat price fixing of Uruguay, and the price fixing of the Agricultural Export Board of Chile. These measures usually are accompanied by others designed to control the volume of imports and exports, as will be seen in the detailed treatment that follows below.

The agricultural price-supporting measures of Latin America are described here under country headings with the more important measures placed first. For brevity the list of countries has been limited to Brazil, Cuba, Uruguay, Argentina, Mexico, and Chile, where the more prominent cases of intervention have occurred.

#### BRAZIL

The Brazilian program for the support of agricultural prices centers in the long-established defense of coffee, which, comprising some 60 to 70 percent of her exports, is the chief mainstay of her economic life. Producing three fourths of the world supply, Brazil has been able, by restricting her exports, to exercise a considerable degree of control over world coffee supplies. She is also seeking to enlarge the markets for coffee by a newly inaugurated policy of seeking international trade agreements. Among other commodities benefiting from government intervention may be mentioned sugar, which in December 1931 was made the subject of a price stabilization control; and wheat, wines, and certain fruits and nuts, which are on an import basis and thus in a position to benefit from the restriction of imports.

1. *Coffee valorization and defense.*—The program of defense as of the beginning of 1933 included (1) Government purchase and storage of 13,000,000 bags as a long-time measure and of about 4,000,000 bags as a short-time measure (pending destruction), the total quantity being equivalent almost to a year's crop; (2) destruction of coffee by burning at the rate of about 750,000 bags a month; and (3) restriction of export supplies by an export tax equivalent to about 50 percent ad valorem, with the Federal Government now the chief agency of control.

In the earlier days of valorization, dating back to 1905, it was the Government of the State of São Paulo which intervened, while in more recent years both the Governments of other coffee-producing States and the Federal Government were active. The first coffee valorization was undertaken by the State of São Paulo in 1905, when large stocks from earlier heavy crops and the prospect of a bumper crop in 1906 had led to a complete collapse of prices. The valorization necessitated the purchase of some 8,000,000 bags, equivalent at that time to almost a whole year's production, and the flotation of a large foreign loan, and was not brought to a final conclusion until after the war. The second valorization was begun in 1917 under a similar situation of heavy supplies and low prices and was brought to a successful conclusion in 1919, during a year of relative shortage and reviving demand. The third valorization, from 1921 to 1924, was conducted by the Federal Government of Brazil; and, instead of being stored abroad as had been the practice theretofore, the surplus coffee was now stored in Brazil, supplies shipped to the port of Santos being regulated with a view to stabilization of prices. All three valorizations are reported to have been financial successes. The first netted \$50,000,000; the second, \$20,000,000, or 70 percent of the investment; and the third, 40 percent of the investment.

In 1922, with the establishment by Federal law of a "Permanent Institute for the Defense of Coffee", the Federal Government began to retire from valorization and to leave the whole project to the State of São Paulo. It was announced that a continuous control was to be exercised through the regulation of shipments from the interior to the Santos market. Warehouses for the storage of large quantities of coffee were constructed in the interior and the flow of shipments to Santos was moderated. But, while a better control of stocks at Santos was secured, plantings and production continued to increase (at a rate of about 8 percent a year) and stocks in the interior continued to pile up. At the end of 1929 the surplus amounted nearly to a year's production. Under this burden the price broke from 16 cents a pound in September to 11½ cents in November. In April 1930 another valorization operation was begun with the securing of a foreign loan of £20,000,000 (\$97,000,000). The proceeds of the loan, amounting to about \$72,500,000, were used as follows: (1) liquidation of the \$34,000,000 of previous short-term indebtedness; (2) purchase of 3,000,000 bags of coffee withdrawn from market; and (3) continuation of the operations for financing of coffee. The loan was for 10 years, with interest at 7 percent, and was secured by an extra export tax of 3s. a bag (73 cents a bag, or 0.55 cent a pound at par<sup>3</sup>) on coffee produced in the São Paulo district. Most significant of all, the terms of

<sup>3</sup> Current exchange as of March 1933 was about 64 percent of par.



the loan required the State of São Paulo to place future crops on the market currently, permitting it to accumulate coffee during the life of the loan only at the request of the bankers as further security.

The beginning of 1931 found the situation worse with prices at half the level of the preceding year and the equivalent of a year's production still in storage. Henceforth the Federal Government began to assume more active charge of the situation. A Federal decree of February 11, 1931, set forth the following: (1) The Federal Government would purchase all surplus coffee as of June 30, 1931, exclusive of the stocks held by the State of São Paulo under the terms of the £20,000,000 loan; (2) entries into the export centers would be admitted "free" only so long as their monthly volume did not exceed one twenty-fourth of the crop commenced and the crop immediately following; (3) a tax of 1 milreis (12 cents) a tree per annum was imposed on new plantings other than replacements of worn-out trees; (4) a tax in kind on all coffee exports, amounting to 20 percent, was imposed.

On April 28, 1931, a National Coffee Council, to be in general charge of the coffee defense, was established by a compact between the coffee-producing States and the Federal Government. This Council consisted of six representatives, one from each State and one from the Federal Government, who acted as chairman. The States agreed each to collect for the Council a special tax of 10s. a bag (\$2.43 or 1.8 cents a pound) on coffee produced in and shipped out of their respective territories for a period of 4 years in addition to the export taxes that each was already collecting. The proceeds were to be employed exclusively "in the purchase for elimination of the excess of production and of the actual stocks, for the purpose of balancing supply and demand . . ." These new measures became effective on May 16, 1931, with the issuance of Federal decrees changing the 20 percent in kind levy to one of 10s. a bag on all coffee exported from Brazil and placing the National Council in charge of the collection and disbursement of the 10s. tax and the regulation of shipments of coffee to the ports. On June 7, 1931, the elimination of surpluses was begun with the first destruction of coffee by burning. From now on the São Paulo Institute no longer functioned as an independent entity but as an agency of the Council.

In September 1931 the Federal Government tightened its control over the Council by compelling it to render a monthly account to the Minister of Finance and by giving to the Federal representative on the Council the power of veto. In December 1931 the Federal Government took over the responsibility of the £20,000,000 coffee loan (now £18,000,000). The export tax was increased from 10s. to 15s. a bag (i.e. to \$3.65 a bag, or 2.75 cents a pound at par), and at the same time the São Paulo 3s. tax was abolished. One third of the 15s. tax



was to pay the coffee debt charges, most of the remainder being designated for the further purchase of surplus stocks as of June 30, 1931. Surplus coffee was to be destroyed by the Council at a minimum rate of 1,000,000 bags a month, though, of course, the coffee pledged against the £20,000,000 loan was to be left intact. At the same time the Council was authorized, at its own discretion, to enter upon buying operations or other measures to defend the market in the future, the funds of the Bank of Brazil being available for this purpose if needed; it was later reported (January 1932) that a fixed gold price was to be maintained.

On May 3, 1932, the export tax was changed from 15s. to 55 milreis per bag in order to maintain the income from this source. Subsequently, through its control over foreign exchange the Brazilian Government increased the gold value of the milreis until in June 1932 the tax was equivalent to about \$4.20 per bag. The gold price was now up to 10 cents a pound.

At the end of the first year of the new coffee control regime (in June 1932) the situation seemed to have brightened somewhat. Purchase of coffee by the National Council to the amount of 13,000,000 bags, the destruction of 8,000,000 bags of coffee, and the prospect of a reduced crop had brought an easier supply situation. Total stocks now amounted to 26.9 million bags, of which 12.7 was held under the foreign loan, 3.6 held by the Council pending destruction, and 10.6 held by planters and exporters for sale in the near future. But the price situation had not improved sufficiently, particularly insofar as the growers were concerned. As was pointed out by farmer organizations, the export taxes constituted half the Santos market price for coffee.

From July 9 to October 14, the whole coffee control machinery was at a standstill, the port of Santos being closed during the São Paulo revolution. In November, increased restriction in the interior was begun with a Federal decree prohibiting the planting of coffee fields during the next 3 years, only spot replanting within fields already under cultivation being permitted. At the same time the National Coffee Council was authorized to fix annually for each producing State a quota of coffee to be sold to the Council at a previously fixed price and to be delivered to the interior warehouses of the Council, the quotas being proportional to the production of the several States. At the same time the restriction on the shipment of coffee out of Santos was eased by a second decree, dated December 1932, which reduced the export tax on coffee by restoring it to the basis of 15s. in gold from 55 to 48.6 milreis (or from \$4.23 to \$3.74 per bag).

On February 10, 1933, the Federal Government took over complete control of the coffee defense by a decree abolishing the National Coffee

Council and creating in its stead a National Coffee Department, subordinate to the Ministry of Finance. The department has three directors, appointed by the Federal Government, and is assisted by an Advisory Council constituted by a representative of each of the agricultural associations of each of the coffee producing States, a commercial representative of the Rio market, one of the Santos market, and one of the Victoria market; the Council is to meet only when convoked by the department. The department has the power to superintend all coffee business, including fiscal control over coffee institutes and associations and the services of the former National Coffee Council. At the present writing much remains to be learned before a definite statement can be made of the policy of the new regime. It appears very likely, however, that Brazil will continue to support the price of coffee by restricting exports from her own shores and thus restricting the supplies available in the world markets.

2. *Sugar industry defense and price fixing.*—Late in 1931 Brazil set up stabilization machinery to control both the supply and the price of sugar, with the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce in charge. When quotations at the principal Brazilian sugar market (Rio de Janeiro) fall below a given minimum, stocks are to be exported. When quotations rise above a slightly higher maximum, stocks are to be sold on the domestic market. Under the shelter of a high import duty on sugar, a minimum price can be maintained by restricting domestic supplies. On the other hand, when supplies have been disposed of on the domestic market and quotations still exceed the maximum fixed in the decree, the Government can lower the tariff barrier. If necessary, the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce may alter the basic prices subject to the recommendation of an advisory Commission for Protection. Operating expenses are derived from a tax of 3 milreis a bag (0.27 cent a pound at par) levied on all sugar produced by the mills.

The actual market operations were placed in the hands of a banking association under contract as the agent of the Government. The price of 39 milreis (paper) a bag at Rio or its equivalent of 30 milreis at the producing centers (3.5 and 2.7 cents a pound, respectively, at par) was set as a basic price. When sugar was selling for less than 39 milreis the bank would advance up to 70 percent of this basic price and assume control over the sugar offered as security. When the price rose above 39 milreis the bank would discontinue warranty operations and, moreover, could sell the sugar held as security. When the price rose above 45 milreis (4.1 cents a pound at par) the bank was obliged to sell the sugar. The bank may be replaced in the future by a cooperative organization constituted through the millers (grinders) and sugar cane owners.

The Advisory Commission for the Protection of Sugar Production comprises some 15 members, two representing the Government, one from each of the sugar-producing States (of which there are about a dozen), and one from the bank to whom the operation of the scheme is entrusted. The Commission determines the amount of sugar to be exported in order to keep domestic prices at the minimum of 39 milreis a bag at Rio de Janeiro, and fixes a compulsory maximum volume of production for every sugar mill in Brazil, a fine of 20 milreis a bag (1.8 cents a pound at par) being provided as a penalty for excess production.

In November 1932 a new decree limited the production of each sugar factory to the average production of the past 5 years, taking into consideration alterations in capacity during that period. The Defense Commission was empowered in May and September of each year to increase or decrease the production permitted in accordance with the stocks on hand and estimates of the harvest. Sugar produced in excess of the limit fixed will be seized by the Defense Commission for export or conversion into alcohol, the proceeds to be incorporated into a defense fund. This decree also authorized the expenditure by the Defense Commission during 1933 of 2,400 milreis for increasing the production of alcohol.

3. *Import restrictions.*—Most agricultural products being on an export basis, import restrictions play but a small role in supporting agricultural prices in Brazil. The duty of 50 percent ad valorem imposed on coffee is for the present largely nominal. The duty on sugar, on the other hand, is effective in connection with the stabilization plan when the internal price is higher than foreign prices; the sugar duty is 4.9 milreis paper (17 cents a pound as of March 1933 exchange). Duties on wine, which is on an import basis and is at the same time produced domestically, vary with alcoholic content from 1.2 to 3.1 milreis paper per kilo (\$4.18 to \$10.88 per 100 pounds). On wheat, which also is imported, a duty of 61 reis paper per kilo (21 cents per 100 pounds) is imposed. From August 1931 to February 1933 a temporary embargo was imposed on all imports of wheat flour following the coffee-wheat barter with the American Federal Farm Board by which the Brazilian Government received in exchange some 25,000,000 bushels of wheat. In the State of São Paulo a decree effective from August to October 1932 required an extraction ratio of 80 percent in the milling of wheat flour and the addition of 5 percent of manioc or corn meal to flour used in bread baking.

#### CUBA

In Cuba sugar occupies a position similar to that of coffee in Brazil, comprising 70 percent of the total exports and forming the mainstay of the national economic life. But besides involving the restriction of



exports, the Cuban sugar control also includes the restriction of production. Moreover, because Cuba does not occupy as dominant a position in the world's sugar market as does Brazil in the coffee market, the sugar control has the added feature of cooperation by Cuba with the other great sugar exporting countries in an international agreement for controlling exports.

Besides trying to maintain the price of sugar, Cuba has taken measures to secure better prices for some other products in order to encourage diversification in agriculture. The livestock and dairy industries, for example, receive the benefit of duties on beef, pork, lard, condensed milk, butter, and margarine, and the dairy industry also benefits from a fixed price for milk in the Habana market. Cereals and breadstuffs are assisted by duties on rice and wheat and by a baking regulation requiring the use of domestic yuca flour.

1. *Aid to the sugar industry.*—The present activities for regulating the supply of sugar may be said to have begun with a law of May 3, 1926, which empowered the President of Cuba to restrict the crops of 1927 and 1928, and to forbid any grinding before a specific date to be announced each season. A 10 percent reduction was provided for the 1926 crop, then being harvested; and for the 1927 crop, January 1 was set as the date for the beginning of grinding, and 4,500,000 long tons was set as the maximum crop.

In preparation for the 1928 crop, the sugar defense law of October 4, 1927, was passed, to remain in force until 1933. It provided for the appointment of a National Commission for the Defense of Cuban Sugar, consisting of five members to act as advisers to the President of Cuba. After the Defense Commission had prepared estimates of the quantity of Cuban sugar required by Cuba herself, by the United States, and by the rest of the world, the President would fix the total amount of the Cuban crop, and its proportional distribution under these three headings. He would also fix the production quota for each mill, sugar produced in excess being made subject to a fine of \$20 per bag, and would fix the percentage of the quota which might be exported to the United States. A Cuban Sugar Export Corporation was set up to take charge of the actual administration of quotas.

In 1928 grinding was delayed until January 15, the crop was limited to a tonnage nearly half a million below that of 1927, quotas were set up for exports to the United States, to countries other than the United States, etc., and 200,000 long tons was designated as a surplus to be carried over. During 1929 and 1930, the policy of restriction was temporarily abandoned, the only restriction being the postponement of grinding until January 1. From January to June 1929 the Sugar Export Corporation was suspended. It was reconstituted in July to act as single seller for a privately organized Cooperative Export Agency and continued in existence after the latter was voted



out of existence in April 1930. In January 1931 the policy of restriction was revived, in anticipation of the establishment of the International Sugar Agreement in May of that year, with a decree limiting the sugar crop to 3.1 million long tons, out of which a maximum of 3.0 million tons could be exported, 2.6 million to the United States and 400,000 to other countries.

*The International Sugar Agreement of 1931.*—On May 9, 1931, at Brussels, seven of the most important sugar producing and exporting countries of the world, led by Cuba, entered into an agreement effective as of the beginning of the crop year of 1930–31, to limit their exports to specific annual quotas, to separate their excess stocks from their normal supplies, and to eliminate the surplus. The seven original participating countries were Cuba, Java, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary, and Belgium, jointly accounting for about 40 percent of the world's sugar production and about 90 percent of the world's sugar exports. (Later in 1931 Peru and Yugoslavia also joined.) A representative International Sugar Council was established to govern the application of the agreement.

Annual export quotas for the next 5 years were assigned to the various countries, although for Cuba only the volume of exports to countries other than the United States was specified. For the first year these quotas were as follows (in 1,000 long tons): Cuba, 655 (to countries other than the United States); Java, 2,300; Germany, 500; Poland, 309; Hungary, 84; Belgium, 30; and Czechoslovakia, 570. An increase of 5 percent in export quotas was to be permitted when the price of sugar f.o.b. Cuba reached 2 cents a pound and maintained that level for 30 days, and further increases would follow with further advances in price. In case Germany in any year was unable to export her quota, such deficiency up to a given limit was to be allotted to Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary, and Belgium, to be exported by them during the next year in addition to their normal quotas.

As a means of eliminating the excess stocks, the sugar agreement, besides limiting exports to a specific quota for each country, indicated for each country the amount of sugar to be segregated as surplus and the amount of the surplus to be disposed of each year. It was further agreed that each of the participating countries should so adjust the production of sugar that its output plus the annually disposable part of its surplus would not exceed its domestic consumption plus its assigned export quota. For Cuba, a surplus of 1.3 million long tons was indicated, to be disposed of in annual amounts of 260,000 tons.

*Cuban participation in the sugar agreement.*—On May 14, 1931, the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute was established to represent Cuban participation in the International Sugar Agreement and to control Cuban production and exports of sugar. Administrative details continued to be entrusted to the National Sugar Export Cor-

poration. Producers and exporters were each allotted a definite quota, and a heavy fine (10 cents per pound) was levied for any sugar produced or exported in excess of the quota.

The quotas are, of course, planned to conform with the terms of the International Sugar Agreement, which limit Cuban shipments to countries other than the United States. In 1931 these were set at a maximum of 655,000 long tons. Inasmuch as shipments to the United States averaged 2.6 million tons (for 1929 and 1930), this meant a maximum total export of some 3.25 million short tons. With her own consumption averaging about 150,000 tons a year, Cuba's total disposition was thus limited to about 3.4 million tons. Taking into account the 260,000 tons of segregated excess stocks to be disposed of in accordance with the international agreement, Cuba had to limit production in 1931 to about 3.1 million tons, as we have already seen in the decree of January 31 (1931), which anticipated the agreement. Inasmuch as this figure represented a decrease of 30 percent from the output of the previous year, Cuba was the first of the members of the international agreement to achieve a drastic curtailment in production.

*Results of the first year of the sugar agreement and modification early in 1932.*—At the end of the first year of the sugar agreement the production of the countries participating stood at less than 9,000,000 long tons in contrast to the output of 11,000,000 tons reported for 1930–31. But despite diminished production, stocks had become larger, prices had reached the lowest levels in 38 years, and international trade had diminished.

As a consequence, following meetings of the International Sugar Council at Brussels (February) and at Paris (March) in 1932, the terms of the agreement were readjusted. Cuba agreed to fix her 1932 crop at about 2,700,000 long tons; and the European parties and Peru agreed to reduce the export quotas fixed for them under the agreement during the year ending September 1, 1932, and/or the year ending September 1, 1933 (for Peru the years ending December 31, 1932 and 1933), by any amount by which Java's effective exports during the year April 1932 to March 1933 exceeded 1,500,000 metric tons. The European parties agreed also to make a corresponding reduction in their sowings for the current year. In other words the total exports from the member countries continued to be restricted, for, whereas Java could still export the amount originally contemplated for 1932, any amount over 1.5 million tons was to be counteracted by lesser exports on the part of the European countries and Peru.

*Increased restriction in Cuba in 1932.*—In accordance with the new terms of the agreement a Cuban decree of March 26, 1932, established the 1932 crop at a maximum of 2,700,000 long (Spanish) tons plus

amounts already ground by mills up to midnight of April 30. The total amount of sugar to be exported by Cuba was set at about 3.4 million tons; the amount for export to the United States was set at a maximum of 2.5 million tons consisting of 2,000,000 tons of the new crop plus 500,000 tons carry-over from the previous year; and the European export quota was set at 860,000 tons, composed of 600,000 tons of the current year's production plus the current annual quota amounting to about 260,000 tons of the previously segregated excess stocks, an additional 50,000 tons having become available as a result of a deficiency in Germany's exports.

Despite these reductions, sugar prices early in June declined to an all-time low of 0.57 cent a pound (duty free, New York), causing the Cuban mills to grind only some 2.6 instead of the 2.7 million tons permitted. When it became apparent that the quota allotted to the United States would be excessive, a presidential decree was promulgated (June 13, 1932) providing that the 1933 crop would be less than that of 1932 by an amount equal to the unsold surplus of 1932, although sugar certified for export during 1932 could still be exported in 1933 over and above the quota to be fixed for that year. Immediately thereafter a pool was organized by banking interests for the purpose of holding for a rise in prices the stocks represented by the 1932 export certificates; and on July 2 the pool was made official and obligatory by presidential decree. Out of the amount assigned to the United States during 1932, 700,000 long tons were to be withheld until the average price, cost and freight New York, reached 1½ cents per pound and remained there for 5 days. All holders of sugar of the 1932 United States allotment were required to contribute 50 percent of their stocks to the pool. Another decree of the same date transferred 115,000 tons from the United States to the European allotment, reducing the balance available for sale to United States to 739,000 tons as of July 1. Following these decrees a favorable reaction set in and, by July 7, the price of sugar rose to 1 cent a pound cost and freight New York.

In August, following the inconclusive adjournment of a meeting of the International Sugar Council (Ostend, July 7 to 16) prices leveled off at about 1.1 cent a pound (cost and freight New York). Thereupon, a decree was published in September extending the 700,000 ton holding pool to June 30, 1933, and at the same time it was made known that Cuban production would be fixed at 2,000,000 long tons for the next season.

*Further modification of the International Sugar Agreement late in 1932.*—At a meeting of the International Sugar Council at The Hague, (Nov. 29 to Dec. 2, 1932) negotiations that had extended over four months finally resulted in another revision of the terms of the agreement. In view of her diminished exports to the United States,



Cuba's 1933 quota for exports to other countries was raised from the original 855,000 to 1,000,000 long tons plus whatever part of the 1932 German export deficit Cuba did not utilize in 1932. This increase in the Cuban quota would be deducted from the quotas of Java and European countries. For 1934 and 1935 the Cuban export quota to nations other than the United States was set at 930,000 long tons, the increase from 855,000 to be compensated for by a corresponding diminution in the quotas of other countries, Germany being the chief contributor in this regard. As a compensation to Germany and the other member countries (other than Java and Cuba) Java agreed that should the world price of sugar achieve the level at which export quotas were automatically to be increased by 5 percent, the other member countries (excepting Cuba) would have the privilege of exporting an additional amount equivalent to her 5 percent while she continued to export at the rate originally assigned. At the same time the pivotal price at which export quotas automatically increase was diminished by common agreement from 2 cents a pound to  $1\frac{3}{4}$  cents a pound, f.o.b. Cuba.

*Further restriction in Cuba in 1933.*—Just prior to the meeting of the International Sugar Council at The Hague, the President of Cuba issued a decree (Nov. 3, 1932) setting the following figures for the 1933 crop: production, 2,000,000 long tons; exports to United States, 1,790,622 tons, consisting of 1,114,991 tons of new crop sugar and 675,631 tons of United States allotment carried over from 1932; exports to other countries, 1,000,000 tons consisting of 735,009 tons of new crop sugar and 264,991 tons of sugar which remains segregated in the possession of the Sugar Export Corporation as of January 1, 1933; and supplies for home consumption, 150,000 tons.

2. *Import restrictions.*—During the past 2 years Cuba has adopted marked increases in her tariffs. On May 17, 1930, an executive decree provided for marked increases in the rates on live hogs, sheep, goats, and a long list of meat and dairy products, the rates being approximately doubled. On February 5, 1931, further marked increases in the Cuban duties were decreed on a wide range of agricultural products, including corn, hay, apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, grapes, melons, other fresh fruits, dried fruits, live hogs, live sheep and goats, fresh pork, lard, bacon, smoked hams, butter and cheese. In March 1932 the duties on many vegetable and animal oils including coconut, peanut, palm, and cottonseed oils were raised and duties were imposed on certain livestock and poultry feeds formerly duty free. Several rates of duty illustrative of the height of the tariff are to be found in the appendix. Another form of protection appeared in a decree effective July 1, 1932, which made it obligatory to include a minimum of 10 percent of yuca flour in the preparation of bread, crackers, etc.



It is noteworthy that Cuba produces, or has possibilities of producing, many of the foregoing products on a scale sufficient to make the import restrictions of genuine significance as an aid to agriculture. If she were to produce more of these herself instead of importing them, it is maintained, Cuba would have a more diversified agriculture and would avoid the hazards of a one-crop economy.

3. *Fixed price for milk.*—By a decree of November 23, 1931, the large pasteurizing plants of Cuba were obliged to pay dairy farmers a minimum price of 5 cents a liter for milk (4.7 cents a quart). This was followed by a decree of May 1, 1932, fixing a minimum price of 10 cents a liter (9.5 cents a quart) for milk sold at retail in Havana and three of its suburbs, where between a third and a fourth of Cuba's population is to be found.

#### ARGENTINA

The agriculture of Argentina, like that of Brazil and Cuba, is overwhelmingly on an export basis, wheat, corn, linseed, beef and other meats, hides, and wool being exported in large quantity. These products, in contrast to coffee, which is produced mostly within the bounds of one country, and sugar, which can be harvested only in such quantity as a relatively few processing units permit, do not lend themselves readily to control. As a consequence, the agricultural price-maintenance program of Argentina is a comparatively modest one. Its main features have been the restriction of sugar production, the regulation of the grain exchanges, and the restriction of imports.

1. *Restriction of sugar production.*—Late in 1928 the Province of Tucumán, which produces about 80 percent of Argentina's sugar, enacted a law limiting the output of each mill to 70 percent of its 1926 production and imposing a prohibitive tax on excess output sold in the domestic market, sugar sold for export being exempt from the tax. Sugar ground from the cane of small independent growers (those producing less than 250 furrows of 100 meters length each) was also exempted. On sugar sold in the domestic market a small tax was imposed for the purpose of defraying the costs of administration.

Concurrent with this enactment, the Argentine Government set up a National Sugar Commission to coordinate the activities of all sugar interests in the country. About 2 years later (February 1931) this body was given a price-controlling function, enhancing its importance. A Federal decree of February 1931 directed the Commission each month so to adjust the import duty on sugar as to keep the price of imported refined sugar, laid down in the Argentine market, between 11 centavos gold per kilo (4.8 cents a pound at par) and 41 centavos paper (7.9 cents a pound). In May 1931 under the auspices of the National Sugar Commission an agreement was reached whereby the

Province of Tucumán limited the production of sugar in the crop year 1931-32 to 278,000 metric tons, while the Provinces of Salta and Jujuy limited their output to a total of 90,000 metric tons. The distribution of sugar was placed in the hands of the Sugar Producers' Chamber of Commerce; a committee of the producers was to assign grinding quotas to the several mills, the volume of production being made subject to the issuance of grinding permits. In December 1931 it was reported that the refiners of Tucumán had agreed to dispose of 103,000 metric tons of surplus sugar within the next 3 years and to reduce their output by 34,000 tons each year (or 102,000 tons for the 3 years). Salta and Jujuy agreed to corresponding reductions. The total reduction according to reports early in 1932 was to amount to 124,000 tons.

2. *Supervision of the grain exchanges.*—Early in 1932 the Argentine Government undertook through direct control of the operations of the grain futures markets to insure that free competition should obtain at the two great grain trading centers, Buenos Aires and Rosario. Two decrees effective in April 1932 set forth the following measures: (1) extension of the privilege of trading on the grain exchanges to all parties interested in grain production or marketing; heretofore this privilege had been limited by the exchanges to regular stockholders, forming a comparatively small group; (2) complete publicity of the details (excepting identity of operators) of all transactions on the grain exchanges, the futures markets being required to publish daily a summary of the day's transactions, specifying the quantities, prices, and dates involved; (3) Government representation on the committees (of the exchanges) which daily determine the "fixation" prices received by farmers under the "price-to-be-fixed" contracts; and (4) registration in the Office of Rural Economy of grain sales contracts made between buyers and farmers.

Agricultural interests were particularly concerned with the method of determining the "fixation" prices. Under the price-to-be-fixed method of sale, common in Argentina, the farmer receives a large advance at the time of delivery and contracts to accept as the price of his grain, the "fixation" price current on some day in the future, which day he is to name. The fixation price is determined each afternoon by a committee of each grain exchange, this price being an average of the day's sales. Because a very few exporters handle the great bulk of the Argentine surplus and the current price of grain is often fixed after the grain itself has passed into their hands, it was contended that the grain exchanges of Buenos Aires and Rosario were being influenced to the disadvantage of the grower.

3. *Import restrictions.*—Several of the minor agricultural products of Argentina are on an import basis for the country as a whole and so are susceptible to control, in matters of supply and price, through the

restriction of imports. Rice, yerba maté, tobacco, eggs, and certain dried and fresh fruits fall in this class, as does sugar also because of the additional controls applied in its case.

Some of the duties early in 1933 were as follows (in gold peso per kilo): rice 0.25 (unhulled); leaf tobacco, 0.15 to 1.00 peso; apples 0.04 peso; yerba maté 0.05 peso (for processed); and sugar, 0.07 (for refined) and 0.05 peso (for 96° and less). Further information as to duties will be found in the appendix.

From March 1931 to April 1932 seasonal embargoes were employed in connection with oranges, lemons, cherries, plums, apples, pears, quinces, peaches, grapes, and melons, to keep out competitive imports during the time when the home-grown produce was being marketed.

#### URUGUAY

Agricultural price-supporting measures in Uruguay include governmental purchase of wheat at a fixed price, governmental operation of a meat-packing plant, exemptions from fees on the part of government-operated port facilities, and tariff duties on agricultural imports.

1. *Government intervention and price fixing in the wheat industry.*— Since August 1929 the Government has several times come to the assistance of the wheat farmers by direct purchases of wheat. A law of August 6, 1929, authorized the National Administrative Council to purchase up to 30,000 tons of wheat of the then current crop at a price of 4.5 pesos per 100 kilos (\$1.21 a bushel at the then exchange). Growers who had sold their wheat prior to July 1, 1929, were given a bounty to compensate them for having received less than the stipulated 4.5 pesos.

On February 7, 1930, a Wheat Purchase Act was passed authorizing the National Council during the next 5 years to purchase surplus wheat directly from farmers. Purchase prices were to be fixed by the Congress each year with the assistance of a cost-finding committee; and the National Council was to set a limit to the amount of wheat purchases authorized. Bounties on export flour amounting to at least half a peso per kilo (40 cents a barrel) for flour ground from legal-price wheat, were also provided, in case the price of wheat at Buenos Aires was less than the Uruguayan legal price.

In accordance with this act, a price of 5 pesos per 100 kilos (\$1.21 a bushel exchange as of February 1930) at the seaboard was fixed for export wheat of the 1929–30 crop, with inland prices adjusted to this basis. In December 1931 the Council ordered the purchase of 10,000 metric tons of wheat at a price of 5 pesos per hundred kilos (62 cents a bushel, exchange as of December 1931), with the stipulation that no more than 367 bushels should be purchased from each farmer. Meanwhile, in January 1931 the National Council prohibited the



importation of foreign wheat so long as the price of native wheat in domestic markets was below the Uruguayan fixed price.

2. *Aid to farmers by Government enterprises.*—In 1929, in line with the national policy of industrial nationalization already extended to insurance, railways, electric power facilities, and port services, Uruguay inaugurated a national meat packing service. Operations were begun in July 1929 with rented meat-packing facilities. At first only the slaughter of cattle and sheep for home consumption was undertaken, but toward the end of 1929 the export of chilled meat also was begun. The plant was operated by a Board of the National Frigorífico, collecting its own revenues, controlling its own expenditures, and taking whatever steps of expansion or retrenchment it deemed wise. The members were appointed for 4-year terms by the National Administrative Council and, together with the employees, shared in the profits according to rank and length of service. At the close of 1931 the Government was reported operating its own meat packing plant and paying slightly higher prices for cattle than the other frigoríficos.

Two other instances of support to agricultural prices on the part of nationalized services may be cited briefly. Since October 1928 cereals and cereal byproducts exported from Uruguay have been exempted from slingage fees and cranage charges. Indirect aid tending to stabilize agricultural prices is furnished by the National Insurance Bank, which was reported in 1931 as having distributed \$500,000 among holders of frost-insurance policies after a late cold wave.

3. *Tariffs.*—Among the relatively few agricultural products of Uruguayan growth for which the tariff is of importance may be mentioned potatoes, dutiable at 0.04 peso per kilo; yerba maté, 0.01 to 0.04 peso per kilo; olive oil, 0.1 peso per kilo; wheat, 0.0135 peso per kilo; and apples, plums, peaches, and pears, dutiable at 0.148 peso per kilo. These rates are as of March 1933 and include seasonal surtaxes which became effective in October 1931; for further information see appendix. On August 1, 1931, legislation complementary to the extension of the 1930 budget authorized the President to apply after 2 months' notice, import duties of 48 percent plus surtaxes of 14 percent to all importations when it was shown that similar articles were produced in Uruguay.

#### MEXICO

Both State and National Governments in Mexico are involved in measures undertaken to support agricultural prices. Such measures have been applied to such export crops as henequen since 1912, and fresh vegetables since late 1932. Henequen ranks first among the agricultural exports of Mexico, while fresh vegetables vie with coffee for second place on the list of agricultural exports. Some agricultural



products which are both produced in Mexico and imported have received price-raising aid through the medium of import restrictions. Incomplete information at hand as of March 1933 indicates also that the sugar industry has been brought under the control of the Federal Government through a special organization and that quotas will be applied to the new year's production.

1. *Intervention in the henequen industry.*—Government intervention in the henequen industry for controlling supply and influencing prices, has been a more or less important feature of the industry from as early as 1912. When the present organ of control, the Cooperative Society of Henequen Producers of Yucatan, was formed in 1925, Mexico was supplying between 75 and 80 percent of the world's exports and held a commanding position in the United States market. From that time on the percentage supplied by Mexico rapidly diminished until in 1930 it stood at 47 percent, both in relation to world markets and to the United States market.

The Cooperative Society functions practically as a Government-controlled semimonopoly in the marketing of henequen, and its activities are bolstered by legislation restricting production. Control is divided between the State Government of Yucatan and the National Government of Mexico. The directing committee of the Cooperative Society, made up of three counselors, has two members appointed by the State of Yucatan; one of these is the Constitutional Governor of Yucatan, who acts as president of the council. The National Government exercises control, particularly over the price policy of the society, through the Banco de México, which is the Mexican national bank, 51 percent of the capital stock being owned by the Government.

The power of control was not delegated to the bank but arose as a result of its credit policy toward the society. The society maintains an open credit account with the Banco de México on which it draws up to three fourths of the amount advanced to growers, giving the bank a mortgage on the henequen received pending the eventual sale of the fiber. Up until the end of 1929 this arrangement worked out satisfactorily, the society not only selling all of its stock and repaying the loans but also building up a reserve of several million pesos. However, the fiber market experienced a sharp decline early in 1930. The Cooperative Society endeavored to maintain the price of henequen at 8 cents per pound, c.i.f. American ports, and notwithstanding declining prices and increasing stocks, continued to make advances to planters at a level based on the quoted c.i.f. price. As a result the reserve fund was soon depleted. Stocks by the end of May 1930 had mounted to an alarming level and the society found itself unable to finance further purchases. In order to protect its investment the Banco de México took over the control of the affairs of the society. The c.i.f. prices were immediately reduced. Large sales (amounting

to about one half of the production during the period covered), were made in August 1930 at  $4\frac{5}{16}$  cents per pound for delivery through June 1931.

Commencing in 1930, the Government of the State of Yucatan, where some 97 percent of the total Mexican output of henequen is grown, has taken steps to curtail production. When the Banco de México took over control of the affairs of the Cooperative Society, the Yucatan Government decreed the complete suspension of all production for the months of November and December 1930. From January through March 1931 the production of each planter was restricted to 80 percent of his deliveries during 1929, when production had been at an abnormally low level. From April through June total suspension was again imposed. Production at 80 percent of the 1929 level was resumed in July 1931. On December 29, 1931, the Governor of the State of Yucatan issued a decree extending the 80 percent restriction through 1932.

Practically all of the henequen growers of Yucatan belong to the Cooperative Society, which purchases the fiber from the planters as produced and manages its storage and eventual marketing. Planters who do not sell through the society must pay a tax in addition to the regulating export tax. The price paid the planter is nominally considered as an advance on the final price, and the balance is supposed to be distributed to the planters in the form of dividends.

2. *State control of the shipment of fresh vegetables from the west coast.*—In November 1932 the State of Sinaloa enacted legislation setting up associations of agricultural producers for the purpose of regulating marketing, and shortly thereafter the State of Sonora followed suit. The laws of these two States brought under control the major part of the important west coast vegetable industry which supplies the United States market with tomatoes, green peas, and string beans in the winter and early spring. The Wells Fargo and Co. Express, S.A., was designated in both States as sole sales agent for all growers and shippers of fresh vegetables. A number of advisory commissions, composed of representatives of the growers, assist the company by daily fixing a quota for the total number of cars which may be shipped into the United States without glutting the market; one of these commissions represents the tomato growers of Sinaloa, one represents those of Sonora, another represents the pea growers of Sinaloa, and so forth. The total State quotas are prorated among the growers by a centrally located State Agricultural Confederation to which the growers' commissions daily report their total quotas; the daily prorations of the confederations are checked by a separate and distinct Vigilant Body in each State in order to prevent any unfairness in the allotment of individual quotas.

In addition to its marketing control, an association may also impose a limitation on the production of its members, when it believes that the normal crops will result in seriously lowered prices.

Although membership in the associations of agricultural producers is not compulsory, producers who market through them receive certificates with each shipment which are accepted by the State Revenue Office in lieu of payment of the regular production taxes. Once they have joined, members must market all of their produce through the associations, subject to the jurisdiction of the confederations. Practically all growers have joined the associations.

The legislation setting up these elaborate controls also provided for the establishment of production financing banks to make advances to the producers during the planting and growing season.

Various charges are assessed on the shipment of vegetables from each State. These include commission and office expenses of the express company, maintenance cost of the Agricultural Confederation, and cost of the Production Finance Bank.

3. *Import restrictions.*—There has been a marked upward trend in the Mexican tariff during recent years, particularly as regards commodities that can be produced in Mexico. Many of the increases have been made by the President, acting under the constitutional powers vested in him by Congress. Among the more conspicuous agricultural items included have been wheat, corn, flour, dairy products, eggs, animal fats and oils, vegetable fat and oils, dried fruit, and fresh fruit. Early in 1933 duties on some of these were as follows (in peso per kilo): Wheat, 0.10; corn, 0.05; olive oil, 0.15 to 0.30; cottonseed oil, 0.20 to 0.25; and lard, 0.23 to 0.35. Details as to these rates and some others will be found in the appendix.

In March 1931 the importation of all varieties of wheat was prohibited ostensibly for sanitary reasons but also as a protection against dumping. In August 1931 the embargo was replaced by limited importation subject to the control of the Department of Agriculture. Similarly with corn, a complete embargo was imposed from March to July 1931 for sanitary reasons, and was modified by permitting importation (after July 1931) subject to permits issued by the Department of Agriculture.

#### CHILE

The foreign trade position of Chile is rather distinctive among the countries of Latin America insofar as agriculture is concerned, her agricultural imports (for 1929 and 1930) almost balancing her agricultural exports. Import restrictions assume an importance, from the standpoint of price-raising effects, not found in connection with the other countries of Latin America. On the export side some aid has been extended through export bounties and through direct price



fixing by a central board, the latter aid being extended also to some commodities which are on an import basis.

1. *Tariffs*.—Chile has adopted marked increases in tariff duties on agricultural products during the past few years. One of the features of the tariff increases adopted has been the application of the sliding scale principle in respect to certain commodities, whereby the duties are shifted upward or downward in accordance with changes in the domestic price level. The sliding scale system has been applied to wheat since January 1, 1931. On that date a law went into effect establishing a sliding scale, based on the value of Chilean wheat, as follows (conversions to United States currency being made at par): When Chilean wheat is selling at 40 pesos per quintal (\$1.32 per bushel) wheat may be free of import duties; when its value is 39 pesos per quintal (\$1.29 per bushel) the import duty will be 1 peso per quintal (3.3 cents per bushel), and this rate of duty will be increased 1 peso per quintal (3.3 cents per bushel) for each peso per quintal decline in value. In addition the general import surtax of 10 centavos per quintal (0.33 cent per bushel) is added to the above rates. Of the manner in which this restriction of imports is associated with other price-fixing activities of the Government, more will be said below.

The duties on cattle, horses, mules, donkeys, sheep, goats, and hogs are also based on the sliding-scale principle. The basic rates on all of these animals were materially increased on December 19, 1931. The law provides, however, that the rates will be reduced or increased by 6 pesos (73 cents) per head in accordance with each centavo (0.122 cent) of fluctuation below or above the average selling price of cattle on the hoof, in the stock yards of Santiago. Further information concerning tariffs is given in the appendix.

2. *Payment of export bounties by the Agricultural Export Board*.—In December 1930 a law was adopted providing for the establishment of an Agricultural Export Board with authority to grant premiums, subsidies, and bounties for the purpose of encouraging agricultural exports. The board was also given price-fixing powers; the latter are discussed separately below in the next section. The regulations governing the payment of bonuses on exports provided that the board would determine the products upon which an export bonus would be paid and the amounts of those products which could be exported. The law provided for three classes of bonuses, as follows: (1) A fixed bonus for a definite period of time to be used preferably for the exportation of wine and malt; the board reserved the right to modify the amount of the bonus agreed upon for these products in cases where the purchaser did not pay the producer the normal domestic price. (2) Variable bonuses designed to cover, in each particular case, the difference between the domestic market price and international quotations. In connection with this class of bonus the board



each year was to fix the minimum prices to be received by the producer, and could alter the number of products affected. Bonuses were paid on beans and were planned for other products; but lack of funds, it is said, prevented further realization. (3) Special bonuses to encourage trial shipments of agricultural products to new markets.

3. *Price fixing*.—In addition to its functions in connection with the export market, the Agricultural Export Board was given important powers in connection with prices in the domestic market. Broad authority was conferred upon it to issue regulations designed to bolster and maintain agricultural prices in Chile.

One of the primary objects of the law establishing the Agricultural Export Board was to insure that wheat growers by October 1931 would not receive less than 40 pesos per quintal (\$1.32 per bushel) f.o.b. Santiago. This was accomplished by the sliding-scale tariff arrangement discussed above. On January 1, 1931, the Agricultural Export Board, in agreement with the millers' associations, fixed the basic scale of minimum prices to be paid by the millers for domestic wheat at 36 pesos per quintal (\$1.19 per bushel) for February 1931 with an increase of 0.50 centavo per quintal (\$0.016 per bushel) for each succeeding month until the price reached the desired minimum of 40 pesos per quintal (\$1.32 per bushel) in October 1931. Further increases of the price were to be checked by free admission of imports once the price had reached this point.

The price-fixing powers of the board arose from a provision to the effect that the board should fix each agricultural season the minimum prices to be received by the producer for all products upon which it decided to pay an export bounty. The President of the Republic, by the law of December 19, 1930, was also authorized to determine the relation that should exist between the prices of agricultural products and their derivatives and to fix the relation between the wholesale and retail selling prices. In September 1932 the board underwent some minor changes with the enactment of a new law; it was renamed the Commissariat of Subsistence and Prices and was authorized to intervene in the retail trade in connection with any commodity in common use.

# APPENDIX<sup>1</sup>

Duties imposed on specified agricultural products imported into certain Latin American countries (March 1933)

A R G E N T I N A			
Product	Import duty a/	Official valuation b/	
	Gold peso per kilo	U. S. dollars per 100 lbs.	Gold peso per kilo
Rice:			
Hulled.....	0.050	1.68	0.08
Unhulled.....	.250	6.71	.02
Leaf tobacco:			
Havana.....	1.000	33.68	1.600
Paraguayan.....	.150	4.55	.128
Other.....	.375	12.81	.640
Apples.....c/	.0375	1.67	.150
			(gross wt.)
Oranges.....	Free	Free	
Eggs.....	Free	Free	
Yerba mate:			
Processed.....	.05000	2.19	.192
Not processed.....	.01875	1.00 d/	.160
Sugar:			
96° and up.....e/	.07000	3.21	.128
Less than 96°.....e/	.05000	2.54	.096

a/ In addition to the duty, surtaxes totalling 17 percent of the official valuation are imposed. b/ Includes surtaxes on official valuation. Conversion to U. S. currency made on the basis of average exchange for March, 1933, peso = \$0.5837. c/ Levied in the form of 25 percent ad valorem of the fixed official valuation, 0.150 gold peso per gross kilo. d/ The surtaxes on official valuation in this case total 12 percent. e/ plus additional duty or surtax fixed at 0.0296 gold peso per kilo for the month of February, 1933. This duty is established monthly by the National Sugar Commission. f/ Includes additional duty established for February, 1933.

U R U G U A Y			
Product	Import duty	Official valuation	
	Peso per kilo	U. S. dollars per 100 lbs.a/	Peso per kilo
Potatoes.....b/c/	0.0386	1.29	0.06
Olive oil.....b/	.10	3.90	.30
Yerba mate:			
From any country, gross weight.....	.04	1.48	.10
In leaves without any preparation, gross weight.....	.01	.50	.06
Wheat.....b/	.0135	.37 d/	
Wheat flour.....b/	.0384	1.36	.08
Apples.....a/	.148	4.06	.20
Oranges.....a/	.084	2.31	.10
Plums, peaches, and pears:			
Seasonal f/.....g/	.148	4.06	.20
Regular.....g/	.068	1.87	.20
Grapes:			
Seasonal f/.....g/	.168	4.62	.20
Regular.....g/	.068	1.87	.20

a/ Includes surtaxes on official valuation. Duties are collected one-fourth in gold, which increases the duty according to the exchange value of the Uruguayan peso. At present this increase is about 28 percent. Conversion to U. S. currency made on the basis of average exchange for March, 1933, 1 peso = 47.33 cents. b/ In addition to the duty, a surtax of 14 percent of the official valuation is imposed. c/ Comprising an ad valorem duty of 31 percent of the fixed valuation, plus a seasonal duty of 0.20 peso per 10 kilos. d/ There is a surtax of 14 percent ad valorem on the c. 1. f. value of wheat. Import of wheat prohibited conditionally. e/ Comprising an ad valorem duty of 20 percent ad valorem of the official valuation plus regular surtaxes of 14 percent and extra import tax of 40 percent on apples and 50 percent on oranges, collected permanently. f/ Seasonal duties collected as follows: Plums, November 17, 1932 to May 1, 1933; peaches, November 17, 1932, to May 15, 1933; pears, November 17, 1932, to July 1, 1933, and grapes, January 1 to May 1, 1933. g/ Comprising an ad valorem duty of 20 percent ad valorem of the official valuation plus regular surtax of 14 percent and extra import tax of 40 percent on plums, peaches, and pears, and 50 percent on grapes, collected during certain seasons. At other times these extra import taxes are not imposed.

<sup>1</sup> Compiled by the Foreign Agricultural Service, United States Department of Agriculture, from data furnished by the United States Department of Commerce.

C U B A a/			
Product	Import duty		
	Pesos per 100 kilos	U. S. dollars per 100 lbs.	
Jerked beef.....	20.00	9.07	
Salted pork.....	14.40	6.53	
Lard.....	b/ c/ 19.32	b/ c/ 8.76	
Condensed milk.....	5.70	2.59	
Butter.....	c/ 26.60	c/ 12.06	
Margarine and oleomargarine d/.....	c/ 40.00	c/ 18.14	
Rice:			
(a) Unhulled in its natural state..	c/ .60	c/ .27	
(b) Hulled or semi-hulled.....	c/ .90	c/ .41	
Wheat, gross weight.....	.32	.145	
Wheat flour, gross weight.....	e/ .91	e/ .413	

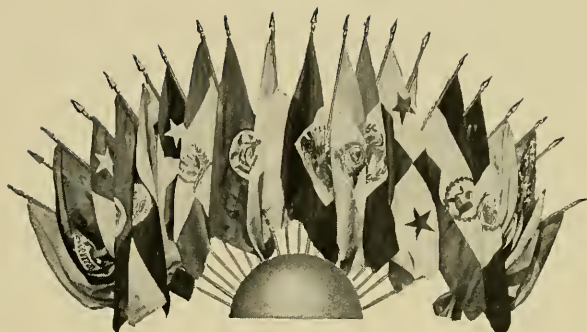
a/ Rates applicable to imports from the United States; the latter form the great bulk of the import trade of Cuba. b/ Less tare allowance of 12 percent of gross weight. c/ Plus consumption tax of 1 cent a pound. d/ Including milk containing materials foreign to the natural composition of milk, except for the addition of common salt and vegetable coloring material. e/ Plus consumption tax of \$0.35 per 100 pounds.

M E X I C O			
Product	Import duty		
	Peso per a/ gross kilo	U. S. dollars b/ per 100 lbs.	
Corn.....	0.05	0.66	
Wheat.....	.10	1.32	
Sugar.....	.18	2.38	
Olive oil:			
Weighing with the immediate con-			
tainer up to 50 kilos (110 lbs.) -			
(1) In casks of wood or in tins....	.20	2.64	
(2) In flasks of glass.....	.30	3.96	
Weighing with the immediate con-			
tainer more than 50 kilos (110 lbs.)	.15	1.98	
In car-tanks.....	Per net kilo .10	1.32	
Cottonseed oil:			
In tank cars or tank vessels.....	.20	2.64	
Weighing with the immediate con-	Per gross kilo .25	3.30	
tainer more than 50 kilos.....			
Coconut grease, crude, weighing with			
the immediate container more than			
50 kilos (110 lbs.).....	.15	1.98	
Lard:			
In tank cars.....	Per net kilo .23	3.04	
In other containers.....	Per gross kilo .32	4.24	

a/ Plus surtax of 3 percent of the duty. b/ Includes surtax of 3 percent of the duty. Conversions made on basis of exchange for March, 1933, 1 peso = 28.33 cents.

C H I L E			
Product	Import duty		
	Chilean pesos Per head	U. S. dollars Per head	
Cattle.....	a/b/ 80.00	a/c/ 9.74	
Rice, gross weight.....	a/ Per kilo 0.20	c/ Per 100 lbs. 1.65	
Sugar.....	.20	1.65	
Wheat.....	d/ Sliding scale	d/ Sliding scale	

a/ Plus surtax of 10 pesos per 100 gross kilos, equivalent to 55 cents per 100 pounds in United States currency. b/ Animals imported by sea or by the passes of the Cordillera in the Provinces of Tarapaca, Antofagasta and Atacama, or by any pass in which there is a railroad in operation, will be subject to an additional duty of 50 percent. The total duty which cattle must pay, subject to this additional duty, will be reduced by 12 pesos for each 5 centavos that the price of live animals in the Santiago markets rises above one peso per kilo, but in no case shall the duty be less than 12 pesos per head. c/ Includes surtax of 55 cents per 100 pounds. d/ When wheat is selling at 40 pesos or more per 100 kilos it is free of duty; when its price is 39 pesos, the import duty is 1 gold peso per 100 kilos (52 cents per 100 lbs.), and this rate of duty is increased 1 peso for each peso of decline in price.



## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD

**T**HE Governing Board of the Pan American Union met on May 31, His Excellency Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala and vice chairman of the Board, presiding in the absence of the chairman.

The program for the Seventh International Conference of American States, to be held in Montevideo next December, was presented by the committee in charge of its preparation and unanimously approved. It will be found in full on pages 549 to 557 of this issue.

The acting chairman then offered the following resolution, which was immediately adopted:

Whereas the settlement of the differences between the Republics of Colombia and Peru gives rise to profound satisfaction on the part of the American nations;

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union resolves to congratulate the Governments of Colombia and Peru on the restoration of peace and on their example of adherence to the fundamental principles of American international policy by having recourse to peaceful means to settle their differences.

In compliance with a request of the Government of Chile, the Third Pan American Highway Congress which was to have met in that country in 1933 was postponed by the Governing Board, the date to be fixed by the aforementioned Government.

### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*National Libraries of Argentina, Chile, and Colombia.*—The National Library of Argentina has published its annual report for 1932, showing an increase of about 19,600 books and pamphlets, of which 1,572 were acquired by purchase, 3,100 by deposit, and the rest by gift. The periodical files include 144 dailies and 1,351 magazines. The entire collection totals 276,477 volumes. During the year the library was used by 95,000 readers, who consulted 140,000 books.



In an effort to increase the size and scope of the library the Director, Señor Gustavo Martínez Zuviría, has asked all citizens of the nation and the 4,000 Rotary Clubs in Argentina, Uruguay, and Paraguay for donations of books. Several thousand volumes have already come into the library through this channel, including a collection sent by the President of Paraguay, Señor Don Eusebio Ayala.

The annual report of the National Library of Chile for 1932 shows a marked increase for the past 5 years in the size of its collection and in the number of readers. The circulation of the library has doubled, for in 1928, 121,265 readers consulted 135,306 books, while in 1932, 269,781 readers used 308,480 books. New books to the number of 6,858 were added to the library in 1932.

Plans for the erection of the new National Library of Colombia have been completed. According to the architect, Señor Alberto Wills, the building will be of Spanish Renaissance style, with provision for 500,000 volumes. It will have four floors, and be completely modern in its appointments, containing a music room and a radio station. Funds for the erection of the building, which will be located on the south side of the Parque de la Independencia, were derived from the "Régie générale de chemins de fer" loan.

*Children's Week in Ecuador.*—As part of the celebration of National Children's Week in Ecuador last December, a delegation of students visited the Municipal Library and Museum of Guayaquil. In his address of welcome, Señor Carlos Matamoros Jara, Director of the Library, described the collaboration between the Library and Museum, and the excellent exhibits in the Museum.

*Women writers in Argentina.*—The third exposition of works by Argentine women writers was held the latter part of last year under the auspices of the Cultural Committee of the Club del Progreso. One hundred twenty-one Argentine women exhibited, representing all fields of literature. Among the addresses given in connection with the exposition were two on poetry, one discussing contemporaneous poetry by women, given by Señorita María Raquel Adler, the other, dealing with descriptions of scenery in Argentine poetry, by Señora de Zalazar Pringles.

*Caras y caretas*, of Buenos Aires, has announced the winners of its second annual literary contest for women. The first prize was unanimously awarded to María Beatriz Espíndola for *Como se hace un literato*, the second to Warná Dani for *La casa de las solteronas*, and the third to Zulema González for *Zaide*.

*Book fair in Mexico.*—The Mexican Book Exposition and Fair, recently conducted by the Dirección General de Acción Cívica (General Bureau of Civic Activities) under the patronage of the mayor of the Federal District, was held at the National Engineering School.

The significance of the many interesting exhibits as an expression of national culture won for the exposition the approval of intellectual and commercial organizations. Señor Luis Castillo Ledón, Director of the National Museum, prepared an exhibit containing publications of the Museum, some of them 100 years old. Señor Enrique Fernández Ledesma, Director of the National Library, sponsored a collection of rare books and examples of magnificent bindings from the shops connected with the Library. Several booksellers exhibited works by national and foreign authors, ancient as well as modern, which book-lovers might acquire.

*New Library in Buenos Aires.*—One of the important objectives of the “Asociación Paul Groussac”, recently founded by Señor Tomás Vignatti in Buenos Aires to honor the great historian and librarian, has been realized in the opening of a library on June 24, 1933, the fourth anniversary of his death. The library will have a reading room for adults and another for children, where monthly conferences will be held. The association also intends to furnish food and clothing to needy children.

*Literary contest announced.*—*La revista americana de Buenos Aires* has announced the rules for its *Concurso ibero-americano de novelas*. The competition is open to all writers of Spanish and Portuguese living in the Western Hemisphere. The first prize will be 400 Argentine paper pesos, and the second 100 pesos, both winners also to be given a percentage of the proceeds of the sales. There will be five other prizes. The contest closes November 30, 1933, and the award will be announced on January 31, 1934. Further information may be obtained from Señor V. Lillo Catalán, Director de “La Revista Americana de Buenos Aires” (Concurso I-A-D-N), Avenida Presidente R. Sáenz Peña 530, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

*Books from Brazil.*—An important acquisition to the Library during recent weeks was a collection of 34 volumes of Brazilian literature, forwarded by the National Library of Brazil. In this group are works by Rodrigo Octavio, Medeiros e Albuquerque, Machado de Assis, Monteiro Lobato, Graça Aranha, Ruy Barbosa, and João Pandia Calogeras. The shipment included *Segunda viagem do Rio de Janeiro a Minas Geraes e a São Paulo* (1822), by Augustin de Saint Hilaire, translated by Affonso de E. Taunay; *O Tupi na geographia nacional*, by Theodoro Sampaio, 1928; *História do Amazonas*, by Arthur Cezar Ferreira Reis; *Vocabulário Gaúcho*, by Roque Callage, 1928 edition; *Raça e assimilação*, by Oliveira Vianna; *Onomástica geral da geographia brasileira* (3.<sup>a</sup> ed. da “Nomenclatura geographica peculiar do Brasil”) by Bernardino José de Souza; and *O matuto cearense e o caboclo do Pará*, by José Carvalho.

*Recent acquisitions.*—Other additions to the library during the past month are as follows:

*Derecho internacional público*, por Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante y Sirvén. Habana, Castas y cía., 1933. tomo 1.

*Tourist guide, Panama; bridge of the Americas*, published by the Panama association of commerce. Panama, Government printing office [1933?] 282 p. illus., fold. maps. 23½ cm.

*Sobre el indio ecuatoriano y su incorporación al medio nacional* [por] Moisés Sáenz. Mexico, Publicaciones de la Secretaría de educación pública, 1933. 195 p. illus. 23 cm.

*Sobre el indio peruano y su incorporación al medio nacional* [por] Moisés Sáenz. Mexico, Publicaciones de la Secretaría de educación pública, 1933. 310 p. illus. 23 cm.

*Juan Godoy; o el descubrimiento de Chañarcillo, 1832–16 de mayo–1932*. Valparaíso, Imprenta Victoria, 1932. 2 v. 19 cm.

*Brazil, resources, possibilities, development . . .* Rio de Janeiro, 1932. 222 p. plates (part. col.), maps (part. col.), tables, diagrs. (part. col.) 27 cm.

*El gobierno de don Manuel Montt, 1851–61* [por] Albert Edwards. Santiago, Chile, Editorial Nascimento, 1932. 493 p. 19½ cm.

*El advenimiento de Portales* [por] Aurelio Díaz Meza. Santiago [Imp. Universitaria] 1932. 240 p. 19½ cm. (Ediciones Ercilla-contemporáneos, año I, n.º 4.)

*Historia de la conquista de la Habana por los ingleses seguida de Cuba y su gobierno*, por Pedro J. Guiteras, introducción de Herminio Portell Vilá. Habana, Cultural, s.a., 1932. 276 p. 20 cm. (Colección de libros cubanos, vol. xxxi.)

*L'America del sud ed il suo destino politico* [per] Ettore Viola. [Santiago de Chile, Editorial Nascimento, 1932.] 294 p. 19½ cm.

New magazines, or those received for the first time, are as follows:

*Servicio informativo peruano*: boletín semanal de noticias para los periódicos del país y extranjeros. Lima, 1933. 4 p. 34 x 22½ cm. No. 8, 20 de febrero de 1933. Weekly. Editor: Lucas Oyague. Address: Apartado 1756, Lima, Peru.

*Guardia nacional*; órgano del ejército de Nicaragua. Managua, 1933. 30 p. ports. 25½ x 17½ cm. Vol. 1, año 1, marzo de 1933. Monthly. Editor: Gral. Anastasio Somorza. Address: Cuartel General, Campo de Marte, Managua, D.N.

*Revista da Sociedade de geographia do Rio de Janeiro*. Rio de Janeiro [1932]. 71 p., plates. 27 x 17½ cm. Tomo xxxiv, 1929 (1º semestre). Semi-annually. Editor: Lindolpho Xavier. Address: Praça 15 de Novembro, 101–2º, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

*Clio*; revista bimestre de la Academia dominicana de la historia. Santo Domingo, 1933. 24 p. 29 x 21 cm. Primer fascículo, enero y febrero, año 1933. Bimonthly. Address: Academia dominicana de la historia, Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

*Colombia*; revista mensile ilustrata. Roma, 1933. 24 p. 31 x 21½ cm. Anno 1, num. 1, marzo 1933. Monthly. Editor: Gustavo Santos. Address: Via Oglio, 2, Roma, Italia.

*Registro municipal*; órgano oficial del municipio de Bogotá. Bogotá, 1933. p. [33]–64. illus. 27½ x 20½ cm. Año liii, numero 2, 31 de enero 1933. Weekly. Editor: Abel Botero. Address: Apartado 2501, Bogotá, Colombia.

# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## ACTION BY THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS ON THE LETICIA CONTROVERSY

On May 25, 1933, the representatives of Colombia and Peru at Geneva accepted the procedure recommended by the Council of the League of Nations for putting into effect the recommendations proposed in the report which it had adopted on March 18, 1933,<sup>1</sup> looking toward a solution of the Leticia incident. Accordingly hostilities have ceased, and a commission appointed by the Council of the League is to administer the disputed territory pending a final settlement of the controversy through negotiation between the two nations. A resolution congratulating Colombia and Peru was passed by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on May 31; it is reproduced on page 591 of this issue.

At the opening of the meeting of the League Council the Hon. Sean Lester, chairman of the advisory committee on the Leticia question, made the following report, which was broadcast from the League's radio station and is reproduced as taken down in Washington:

The Council will remember that at its meeting of March 18 it adopted unanimously a report under Article XV, Paragraph 4, of the Covenant concerning the dispute between Colombia and Peru. The representative of Colombia voted for the report. The representative of Peru was not in a position to do so. On the same day the Council appointed an Advisory Committee to watch the situation and to assist the Council in the performance of its duties under Article IV, Paragraph 4, and help the members of the League for the same purpose to concert

<sup>1</sup> In its report of March 18, 1933, the Council made the following recommendations:

1. Seeing that the situation resulting from the presence of Peruvian forces in Colombian territory is incompatible with the principles of international law, with those of the Covenant of the League of Nations and of the Pact of Paris, which are binding on the two Parties, and to which the settlement of the dispute must conform;

And that it is necessary to establish as speedily as possible a situation in harmony with those principles; And that, moreover, the Government of Colombia has accepted the proposals made by the Council in its telegram dated January 26th, 1933, to the effect that the strictest precautions should be taken to avoid any violation of Peruvian territory and, in proceeding to the re-establishment of order, the Colombian authorities should show the requisite moderation:

*Recommends the complete evacuation by the Peruvian Forces of the territory contained in the Leticia Trapezium, and the withdrawal of all support from the Peruvians who have occupied that area.*

2. Seeing that the Council has recognized the necessity for negotiations on the basis of the Treaties in force between the Parties for the purpose of discussing all the problems outstanding and the best manner of reaching a solution of them which shall be just, lasting, and satisfactory;

And that the discussion of these problems will include the examination of any legitimate Peruvian interests:

*Recommends that the negotiations be begun and carried out with all expedition, as soon as suitable measures shall have been taken to carry out the first recommendation.* ("The Monthly Summary of the League of Nations", March, 1933.)



their action and their attitude among themselves and non-member states. In the course of its discussions the Advisory Committee thought it saw the possibility of bringing the parties to agreement on a procedure for carrying out the recommendations of the Council. Long negotiations took place and on the tenth of May I was in a position to present to the parties a document containing the procedure recommended by the Advisory Committee for putting into effect the recommendations proposed by the Council in the report which it adopted on March 18, 1933. The procedure is now submitted to the Council, and I will read the agreement containing the text, as follows:

"The Advisory Committee recommends the governments of Colombia and Peru to adopt the following procedure for putting into effect the recommendations embodied in the report adopted by the Council of the League of Nations on March 18 in order to avoid any incident that might aggravate the relations between the two countries:

"1. The Governments of the Republic of Colombia and the Republic of Peru accept the recommendations approved by the Council of the League of Nations at its meeting on March 18, 1933, under the terms of Article XV Paragraph 4 of the Covenant and declare their intention to comply with those recommendations.

"2. The Council shall appoint a commission which is to be at Leticia within a period not exceeding thirty days. The Peruvian forces in that territory shall withdraw immediately upon the commission's arrival and the commission, in the name of the government of Colombia, shall take charge of the administration of the territory evacuated by those forces.

"3. For the purpose of maintaining order in the territory which it is to administer, the commission shall call upon military forces of its own selection and may attach to itself any other elements it may deem necessary.

"4. The commission shall have the right to decide all questions relating to the performance of its mandate. The commission's terms of office shall not exceed one year.

"5. The Parties shall inform the Advisory Committee of the Council of the League of Nations of the method whereby they propose to proceed to the negotiations contemplated in No. 2 of the recommendations of March 18, 1933, and the committee shall report to the Council accordingly.

"6. The Council of the League of Nations reminds the Parties that it has declared itself ready to lend its good offices at the request of either Party in case of disagreement as to any point either of procedure or of substance which may require attention from the developments in the dispute. The Council feels that it could not neglect to concern itself with the development of the controversy.

"7. The government of the Republic of Colombia will take upon itself the expenses involved by the working of the commission and the administration of the territory to which the mandate conferred on the commission relates.

"8. In consequence of the acceptance of the foregoing proposals the governments of Colombia and Peru shall give the necessary orders for all acts of hostility to cease on either side and for the military forces of each country to remain strictly within its frontiers.

"The undersigned representatives of the governments of Colombia and Peru accept on behalf of their governments the procedure for putting into effect the recommendations proposed by the Council in the report which it adopted on March 18, 1933, in the form proposed by the Advisory Committee and approved by the Council at its meeting of May 25, 1933. They recognize that the meaning of certain points in this procedure is defined in the annexed letters dated May 25, 1933, addressed by the President of the Advisory Committee with the approval of the Council to the two above-mentioned governments.

"In faith whereof the present instrument has been drawn up in three copies, one for the government of Colombia, another for the government of Peru and the third to be deposited with the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

"Done at Geneva, May 25, 1933."

This document is, as you will observe, accompanied by a letter which I have been authorized by the committee to address to the representatives of Colombia and Peru. It is to the following effect:

"The committee of which I have the honor to be chairman desires me to place on record for the information of your government certain commentaries on the agreement which has now happily been come to between the governments of Peru and Colombia. In Paragraph 2 of that agreement it is stated that the Peruvian forces which are at Leticia will evacuate that territory as soon as the commission arrives on the spot. The committee understands that the Colombian forces which have occupied Güepi and other posts on the Peruvian bank of the Putumayo will evacuate those posts simultaneously with the evacuation by the Peruvian forces of Leticia and will hand them over to the Peruvian Government.

"Article 3. The commission shall call upon military forces of its own selection and may attach to itself any other elements it may deem necessary for the purpose of maintaining order in the territory which it has to administer. The committee understand that the commission will itself be judge of the number of forces required for this purpose but it will not ask for any further forces than may in its judgment be required for the maintenance of order.

"Article 5. In order that there may be no misunderstanding as to the exact scope of the negotiations the Committee thinks it well to quote in full the text of the recommendation of the council on this point:

"Seeing that the Council has recognized the necessity for negotiations on the basis of the Treaties in force between the Parties for the purpose of discussing all the problems outstanding and the best manner of reaching a solution of them which shall be just, lasting, and satisfactory; and that the discussion of these problems will include the examination of any legitimate Peruvian interests:

"Recommends that the negotiations be begun and carried out with all expedition, as soon as suitable measures shall have been taken to carry out the first recommendation."

I am happy to be able to inform the Council that the representatives of Colombia and Peru are now prepared to sign the agreement.

The agreement was signed by Dr. Eduardo Santos, for Colombia; Señor Francisco García Calderón, for Peru, and Señor F. Castillo Nájera, for the Council of the League of Nations.

The commission which will be in charge of the administration of the territory in dispute is composed of the following members: Col. Arthur W. Brown (United States); Capt. Francisco Iglesias (Spain); Alberto de Lemus Basto (Brazil); and Armando Mencía (League of Nations), secretary of the commission.

## THE NIEMEYER REPORT ON ARGENTINE FINANCES

At the end of March, after three months of study and investigation, Sir Otto Niemeyer, a British financial expert, presented the report prepared by him and his associates at the request of the Government of Argentina on certain aspects of the financial situation in that country, together with recommendations the fulfillment of which he believed would improve the monetary, banking, and budgetary system of the nation.

The report touches chiefly upon those problems which Sir Otto felt were susceptible to remedial measures within Argentina. The broader questions, in which Argentina played but one part among many nations, Sir Otto deemed it more desirable to leave to consideration at the World Economic Conference, where effective action might be taken.

In brief, the report discusses the banking structure of Argentina, and the need for a central reserve bank to consolidate the functions of such comparatively independent financial institutions as the Conversion Office, the Exchange Control Commission, and the Rediscount Commission; the control of loans contracted by the national, provincial, and municipal governments; the relation between the monetary circulation and the actual currency needs of the country; the possible future stabilization of the peso; the preparation of the budget upon more scientific and accurate lines; and the problem of exchange control. Complementary to the report itself, there are presented draft projects for the creation of a central reserve bank, together with statutes for its operation, and a general banking law.

The draft law for the creation of a central reserve bank provides that every national and foreign bank in Argentina with a capitalization of over one million paper pesos shall subscribe to the capital stock of the new bank; the bank shall be the sole note-issuing entity in the country; it shall assume all Conversion Office notes over 5 pesos now outstanding and provide measures for the retirement of the old currency; the bank shall continue to use the present ratio between gold and paper pesos in publishing its gold holdings until such time as the external value of the peso shall be determined definitely by a new monetary law; and all notes of less than 5 pesos outstanding shall be replaced by coins.

In addition, the draft provides that when the reserve bank shall begin operations, the functions of the Conversion Office, the Rediscount Commission, and the Autonomous Amortization Board shall

cease; the Exchange Control Commission shall become a department of the bank as long as it remains in existence; certain government accounts shall be transferred to the bank, provisions being made for the various financial operations necessary in connection therewith; and finally, within a year of the establishment of the reserve bank, the gold peso is to be no longer a money of account for government purposes or to be used in the balance sheets and accounts of banks or companies.

The draft law providing statutes for the operation of the proposed reserve bank sets forth the regulations for the internal control and management of the institution, followed by a detailed list of the functions which the bank can or cannot perform. Under this section of the project, it is provided that the bank can issue notes; buy and sell gold; accept deposits without interest; rediscount 90-day commercial paper of member banks; rediscount 150-day paper with member banks resulting from agricultural or livestock transactions; make advances to member banks under certain regulations; buy and sell foreign exchange; act as correspondent or agent for other central banks or for the Bank of International Settlements; undertake the issue and management of federal government loans, but not subscribe to or underwrite such loans; administer the clearing-house system in Buenos Aires and other centers; and accept the custody of securities and other articles of value.

On the other hand, the reserve bank cannot issue notes of less value than 5 paper pesos; make advances to the governments of the provinces, municipalities, their subsidiaries of any kind, or to autonomous government institutions under any circumstances whatever, and only to the federal government itself within strict limitations; guarantee bills or other obligations of any public or semipublic entity; engage in trade or purchase shares in any undertaking; make unsecured advances or allow overdrafts; purchase real property except that needed by the bank itself; draw or accept bills payable otherwise than on demand; or allow the renewal or substitution of paper purchased or rediscounted by or pledged to the bank, except under special rules.

The legal reserve of the bank is to be set at 25 percent, with provisions for its protection should gold drainage endanger this ratio by reducing reserves below 33 percent.

Regarding the monetary standard of Argentina, the proposed statutes declare that "the bank shall be obliged on demand to exchange its notes in amounts of not less than 10,000 paper pesos either for gold or, at the bank's option, for foreign currency complying with the provisions of the monetary law."

There are then set forth the regulations to govern the relations between the reserve bank and the banks of the country and with the government. To the latter the bank will be allowed to advance, to



cover temporary budget deficits, no more than 10 percent of the total tax revenue approved by Congress in the budget law of the year, such advances to be repaid before the close of the same year, no further advances to be made until this has been done.

As an appendix to his report, Sir Otto Niemeyer presented a draft of a banking law, providing brief general regulations for the operation of banks in Argentina and the manner in which their confidential accounts should be presented to the central reserve bank.—H. G. S.

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## THE ANGLO-ARGENTINE COMMERCIAL CONVENTION

On May 1, 1933, representatives of the governments of Argentina and the United Kingdom signed a commercial convention, supplementary to the original trade treaty of 1825, which contains provisions covering two principal points: Meat exports from Argentina into the United Kingdom and British credits frozen in Argentina on account of exchange control in the latter country.

The agreement was the result of several months' negotiations in England between British government and trade officials and an Argentine delegation, headed by Dr. Julio Roca, Vice President of Argentina. This delegation, after paying an official visit to return that of the Prince of Wales to Buenos Aires in 1931, initiated negotiations in an effort to insure to Argentina a continuation of her dominant place in the meat trade of the United Kingdom. By the agreement signed at the Imperial Economic Conference at Ottawa in 1932, various preferences were conceded to products in trade between the British dominions, which it was thought would have an injurious effect upon Argentine exports to the United Kingdom. The efforts of the Argentine mission, therefore, were directed at reaching some agreement with British interests to protect the Argentine position as far as possible. On the other hand, considerable British capital has been tied up in Argentina, awaiting release as soon as exchange conditions would permit. The second phase of the negotiations in London, therefore, was directed toward some arrangement whereby these British funds might be transmitted to England.

The agreement was to consist of three sections: first, the convention itself; second, a protocol to the convention, both of which sections were to go into effect provisionally as from the date of signature, May 1, 1933, pending the necessary ratifications by the respective governments; and third, a supplementary agreement which must be negotiated prior to August 1, 1933, or the entire convention will become terminable on one month's notice by either party. The supplementary agreement is to provide details of customs duties on products in the trade between the two countries, but pending the

negotiations of such agreement, neither government, by the terms of the protocol, may increase its customs duties. Under the terms of the convention, when ratifications have been exchanged by the two countries, the treaty will come into force as from the date of such exchange, for a period of three years, and "thereafter, unless either Contracting Party shall have given notice of termination to the other through the diplomatic channel, it shall remain in force until the expiration of six months after the date on which the notice of termination is given."

If we consider in more detail the provisions of the convention proper, it will be seen that the section dealing with the Argentine meat trade states that there will not be imposed "any restriction on the imports of chilled beef into the United Kingdom from Argentina in any quarter of a year below the quantity imported in the corresponding quarter of the year ended the 30th June, 1932", unless certain restrictions are necessary to maintain a remunerative price level in the United Kingdom. In such an event there will be consultation with the Government of Argentina, and no such restrictions will be maintained if it becomes apparent that the imports excluded from Argentina are being replaced by increased imports of other kinds of meats. However, if, owing to unforeseen circumstances, it should become necessary to reduce imports of Argentine chilled beef more than 10 percent below the amount imported during the year ended June 30, 1932, the United Kingdom will consult with Argentina and other meat-producing nations (including the British dominions) in order to effect a reduction in the imports of chilled and frozen meats from all producing countries.

The agreement also provides specifically that no reduction will be made in imports of Argentine chilled beef to an amount more than 10 percent below the quantity imported in the year ended June 30, 1932, unless imports of chilled and frozen meats from countries within the British Commonwealth of Nations are similarly reduced. The Government of the United Kingdom also promises that no restriction will be imposed upon imports of frozen beef, mutton, or lamb in excess of those specified in Schedule H of the agreement concluded with Australia at Ottawa unless imports of such meats from countries within the British Commonwealth of Nations are restricted, and that in such an event fair and equitable treatment will be given to Argentina.

The section of the convention dealing with the exchange problem in Argentina provides that the full amount of sterling exchange arising from the sale of Argentine products in the United Kingdom, after the deduction of a reasonable sum annually toward the service of the Argentine public external debts (national, provincial, and municipal) payable to other countries, shall be made available to meet

current remittances from Argentina to the United Kingdom. To provide for balances owed to British interests prior to May 1, 1933, the convention states that out of the exchange made available under the agreement just mentioned, a sum equivalent to 12,000,000 paper pesos will be segregated from the available exchange during 1933 for the payment in cash of claims awaiting exchange as of May 1, 1933. After the exhaustion of this sum, the Argentine Government will issue sterling bonds, at par, bearing interest at 4 percent and payable within twenty years, up to an amount necessary to liquidate all remaining frozen British balances in Argentina outstanding on May 1, 1933. Repayment of the funds will begin after five years, the rate of conversion and other conditions to be arranged between the Argentine Government and a committee representative of holders of the balances concerned.

The protocol to the convention provides, among other points, for fair and equitable treatment of British capital in Argentina; a joint inquiry by the United Kingdom and Argentina into the meat trade, with the object of insuring a reasonable return to cattle producers; and the licensing of meat imports into the United Kingdom from publicly owned and operated meat plants in Argentina up to 15 percent of the total meat imports permitted from that country. In addition, in regard to the customs duties of the two countries, the protocol states that Argentina intends to maintain on the free list coal and all other goods that are at present imported into Argentina free of duty; that on goods a substantial proportion of which are imported from the United Kingdom Argentina will revert to its 1930 list of customs duties; that Argentina will discuss with Great Britain means to assure the maintenance of the present position of the British coal trade in Argentina; that Argentina will in no way increase its customs duties on the goods above mentioned pending the negotiation of the supplementary agreement to the treaty; and on the other hand, that the United Kingdom will levy no new duties nor increases in duty on meat, bacon, hams, wheat, linseed, corn or quebracho imported from Argentina, or establish quantitative limitations on wheat, corn, linseed, raw wool, and certain other items, pending the conclusion of the supplementary agreement.

Other points in the protocol provide that the Argentine Government will set up a special committee, in whose deliberations British representatives will be invited to take part, in order that the supplementary agreement may be prepared and completed prior to August 1, 1933; and that the whole convention, including the protocol, is to come into force provisionally from the date of signature, with the exception of that section relating to the sterling bond issue by the Argentine government, which need not be offered until after the conclusion of the supplementary agreement.—H. G. S.

## NECROLOGY

*Luis M. Sánchez Cerro.*—On Sunday, April 30, 1933, President Luis M. Sánchez Cerro of PERU was assassinated in Lima. He had been Chief Executive for less than a year and a half, having taken the oath of office before the Congress on December 8, 1931. General Sánchez Cerro had served in the army for over 20 years, both at home and abroad. At one time he had been military attaché to the then Peruvian legation in Washington. During 1930 he was head of the Provisional Government for several months, resigning to file his candidacy for the presidency.

*Oscar de Santa Cruz.*—On March 9, 1933, Col. Oscar de Santa Cruz died in La Paz, BOLIVIA, at the age of 83. He was born in Paris, where his father, Don Andrés de Santa Cruz, the second President of Bolivia and Protector of Peru, was engaged in the diplomatic service of his country. Col. Santa Cruz spent the later years of his life in historical research, giving special attention to the formation period of the Republic, in whose evolution and early development his father played so important a part. Among his works is the monumental study *El General de Santa Cruz, Gran Mariscal de Zepita y del Gran Perú*, in which he published much inedited material from his father's papers. At the time of his death he was working on a history of the administration of General Santa Cruz.

*Baltasar Brum.*—One of the outstanding figures in URUGUAYAN public life died suddenly on March 31, 1933, at the age of 49. This was Dr. Baltasar Brum, who began his career as statesman in 1913, when President Batlle y Ordóñez appointed him Minister of Public Instruction. In the next six years he held other portfolios in the national government; as minister of Foreign Affairs he was a member of Uruguayan missions to other American nations. In 1919 he was elected President of the Republic for four years, and at the time of his death he was a member of the National Council of Administration. During the last ten years he had also been editor of the Montevideo newspaper *El País*.

*Zelia Nuttall.*—American archeology lost one of its most enthusiastic authorities by the death of Mrs. Zelia Parrott Nuttall, which occurred in Coyoacán, MEXICO, on April 13, 1933. Although born in San Francisco and educated in Europe, Mrs. Nuttall had made her home in Mexico for nearly 40 years. Her studies in both colonial and pre-Columbian life and culture had won for her recognition on both sides of the Atlantic. She was particularly interested in the Aztec civilization and did much to revive ancient festivals, especially the



celebration of the day when the sun reaches the zenith. Among the many tributes paid Mrs. Nuttall was the statement issued by Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union: "Mrs. Nuttall occupied a high position amongst archaeologists and her death means more than a loss to science. In addition to her scientific efforts she was constantly endeavoring to bring about closer cultural relations between Mexico and the United States."

*Nestor Rangel Pestana.*—One of the outstanding figures in Brazilian journalism, Nestor Rangel Pestana, died in São Paulo on April 28, 1933, in his 56th year. In selecting a newspaper career, Senhor Pestana carried out an honored family tradition; his uncle, Francisco Rangel Pestana, the foremost journalist of republican sympathies of his day, was instrumental in bringing about the fall of the Empire.

Senhor Pestana was first employed by *O Estado de São Paula*; he left to edit *O Jornal*, an important morning paper published in Santos. In 1907 he returned to São Paulo, where he founded *A Noticia*, a paper which immediately won public favor. Dr. Julio Mesquita, the editor of *O Estado*, persuaded him to return to the editorial staff of that daily, and on the former's death in 1927, Senhor Pestana was appointed editor. His influence was felt far beyond the confines of his native state, for he was well known in other parts of America and in Europe. He represented *O Estado* in various international congresses of journalists, notably at Copenhagen in 1923 and at Washington in 1926. He was also a correspondent of *La Nación* of Buenos Aires.

Among the nonjournalistic interests of Senhor Pestana was the Sociedade de Cultura Artistica de São Paulo, of which he was charter member and secretary to the time of his death.



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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



SIMÓN BOLÍVAR

AUGUST

1933

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COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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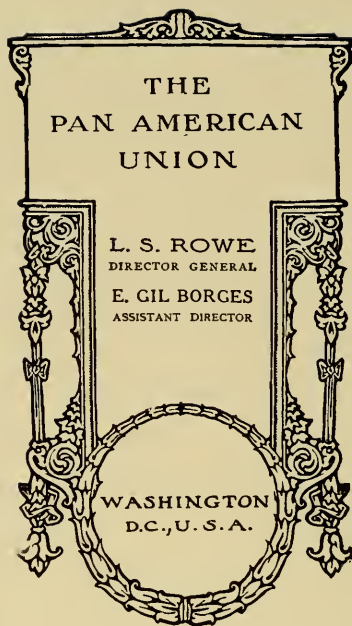
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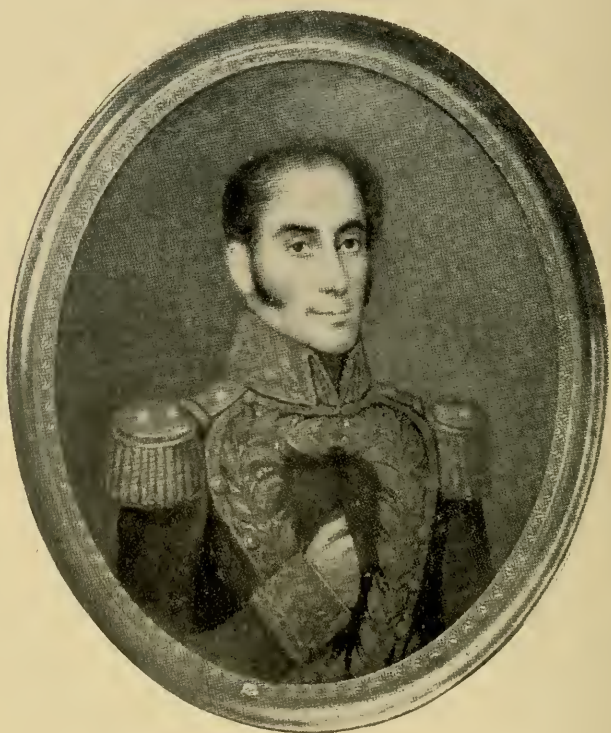
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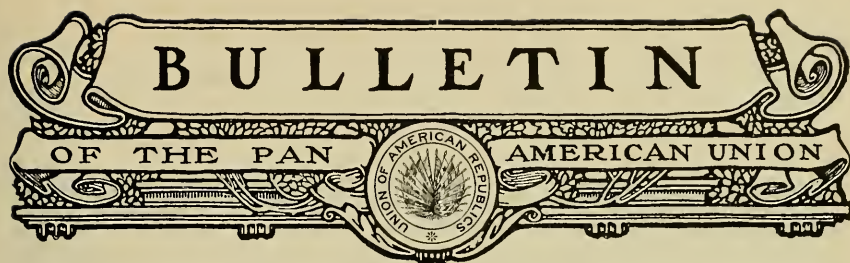
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BOLÍVAR IN 1825.

From a miniature now in the birthplace of the Liberator.

"He was a man foredestined. Or rather, there were many men in that one frame, slender, spare, nervous, seemingly fragile. To cope with needs that required conflicting solutions there appeared in that compact human bundle as many personalities as the diversity of his commands required. He radiated power without losing any of its essence, which, like that of radium, diffused its miraculous properties without exhaustion or diminution. For his mission—at once that of rebel and of conqueror, of destroyer and of builder, of motive power and of brake, of leader and of legislator, of administrator and of judge—he needed to be equally a man of action and of meditation, of far vision and of immediate impulse, of volcanic ardor and of transparent serenity."



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## A EULOGY OF BOLÍVAR ON THE SESQUICENTENNIAL OF HIS BIRTH

By GONZALO ZALDUMBIDE

*Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Ecuador to the United States*

ON such an anniversary as this, when Bolívar ought to be commemorated in stone and marble, no tribute rendered him can be brief unless heraldic language be used exclusively. A classic Latin inscription would be required, composed, after the grand manner, entirely of superlatives which by their accuracy and discrimination would not seem fulsome praise but rather the dicta and apothegms of history; a heroic epigraph which would add to the praise of the hero the flavor of a venerable antiquity, the only element lacking in the glory of the greatest glory of America: the patina of the ages. After one or two millenia, when the now youthful America will perhaps have exhausted its cycle of civilization, the Hero of America, then exalted by distance as an almost mythical figure, will still be apparent, dominating vanished time. It is barely a hundred and fifty years since Bolívar was born, only a hundred and three since he died. Yet already his life is surrounded by that legendary halo, vague in outline but none the less real, emanating from the innate virtue of a soul which lives through the centuries.

"A man can speak of Bolívar," said Martí, "with a mountain for his tribune, amid lightning and thunder, or with a handful of free nations in his grasp and headless Tyranny at his feet." . . .

That and no other is the most fitting manner consonant with the refulgent hero. But not every one has been endowed with the eloquence of Martí, that soul twin to Bolívar; for Martí, although often speaking from the depths of exile and despair, spoke as though from the heights.





BOLÍVAR CROSSING THE ANDES.

In this painting, the central panel of a triptych hanging in the Federal Palace of Caracas, the famous Venezuelan artist, Tito Salas, has portrayed the Liberator on his white horse among his loyal veterans, who followed him faithfully through the hardships of that epic march.

Fortunately, any word, if heartfelt, makes a welcome tribute of respect and devotion; perhaps, indeed, the most acceptable tribute to his august memory is the silence of solitude and meditation. It is deeds that best commend the man, says the moralist. Let us recall Bolívar's illustrious deeds, and we shall have best fulfilled our duty to him.

\* \* \*

He was the synthesis of the conflicting and invisible forces of that dilemma of Spain in America, of America confronting Spain. Bolívar, as Unamuno has defined and exalted him, was a Spaniard and therefore free, proud, and unconquerable; as a good Spaniard he could not continue to be a subject of other Spaniards who, although he was their equal, did not recognize him as such and oppressed him. . . . Now, after the tremendous and inevitable struggle, a greater and magnanimous Spain, one in ideals, exists on both sides of the ocean.

He was a man foredestined. Or rather, there were many men in that one frame, slender, spare, nervous, seemingly fragile. To cope with needs that required conflicting solutions there appeared in that compact human bundle as many personalities as the diversity of his commands required. He radiated power without losing any of its essence, which, like that of radium, diffused its miraculous properties without exhaustion or diminution. For his mission—at once that of rebel and of conqueror, of destroyer and of builder, of motive power and of brake, of leader and of legislator, of administrator and of judge—he needed to be equally a man of action and of meditation, of far vision and of immediate impulse, of volcanic ardor and of transparent serenity.

And all that he truly was. In order that nothing should be missing in that planetary conjunction of multifarious gifts, there was in his life the sign of misfortune. Consider the great parabola of his career: It began with victories, dazzling as celestial portents; it descended in the ominous twilight, threatened with storms which he could have exorcised only if his prophetic voice, now raised in a jeremiad, had found the slightest echo in the ingratitude of his followers, who were deserting him as if to let solitude increase his stature.

Although it still tears at our hearts to see him thus abandoned, yet our souls are strengthened by contemplating the manly bitterness of the stoic ideal that companioned him in his last hour; he let himself be vanquished, it may be said, only to prove that the steel of his character, tempered to withstand such adversity, was even stronger than that of his sword, still unbroken and, as always, ready.

The temper of his splendidly forged character was of everlasting power. The defeated but unconquered man of Pativilca and of Casacoima—who rebelled against the impossible, brought about the unlikely, and realized the unachievable because he would not relax

his efforts even when his extreme powerlessness made them seem absurd—finally at the end of his life had, in order to avoid a greater disaster, to compromise, to yield to his inferiors, whom he was unable to conquer with generosity, although he could cow them with his wrath; yet he could not intimidate them without imperiling Colombia, by then destitute of better men than those mischiefmakers, mediocre rather than bad. He had to minimize his stature in the face of unworthy suspicions; he had to shut his eyes to others' unbridled ambitions. For even the least disloyal, those who wanted Bolívar to remain among them, wanted him to cease to be himself, as if the "Arbiter of Peace and War" could ever have let himself be enslaved by lesser ambitions than his own; and those ambitions had already been more than fulfilled, had already been crowned, with no need for any other "crown", unless it were that crown of thorns without which apparently no human greatness can be truly consecrated.

He was an extraordinary man from beginning to end. See him as a young man, for he did know how to be truly young. Ardent, ambitious, kindled with the double flame of Mars and of Venus, enjoying glory and luxury with all their pomp and vanity, yet always preserving, within his eagle heart, the power of the eagle's mighty wings. Neither in the pleasure- and adventure-loving lad nor in the Don Juan of the drawing room was there any trace of vulgarity; he was free from excess because he had that anticipated satiety with which the mind runs ahead of experience, and he carried with him as security his foreknowledge that he was summoned for high emprise. Born and brought up in aristocratic ease and splendor, the young Simón was not self-indulgent either in the placid leisure of colonial life nor in the care-free distractions of Old World travel. In the gay Parisian salon of his cousin, Fanny de Villars, he was etching with the burin of "French ideas" the American soul of the Liberty of America.

He reached Rome, and on the Aventine underwent a transformation, binding himself by oath in the manner of a Plutarchian hero—yet in the nascent hero of America there was nothing incongruous, nothing that was not consonant, in historic majesty, with the greatness of his historic surroundings. Heir of the august wolf, from the ashes of old Rome he carried to his native land the spark of liberty to kindle and spread at the heart of the Tropics and to make the tradition of a distant race flower on American soil, in the image and likeness of the classical Roman type.

He returned to America. How, then, should he occupy himself in Caracas? Was he, the young aristocrat, going to do like all the rest—hold forth after the French manner in revolutionary clubs, agitate men's minds with intellectual Utopias, or tickle their vanity with unassimilable ideas? No, because he was a man of America; he was a man on horseback. And he knew that, for causes like his, no words are ever as arresting as the ring of hoofbeats on the roads.



And the good rider knew that his men were those who followed him, not those who agreed with him—and waited until he returned. He was the Man of America.

That was why he was so beloved by his soldiers—because his frail form towered on horseback, and the impetus of his soul seemed one with the mettle of his steed. Thus his horse stopped at Junín; and the hoofbeats of his gallop still echo in the silence of the astounded Andes. . . . His soldiers loved him because his eyes, glowing with enthusiasm and intelligence in his weatherbeaten face, softened as he saw the almost canine respect of his rough but faithful veterans, men who hardly knew why they were fighting, but did know that they were fighting in a good cause. With them he spoke a language of Homeric familiarity, just as with the learned, in discussing Montesquieu and the art of government, his words were academic and erudite.

Everywhere he was the first and in every sphere he had no second. His genius continued to shape itself by conflict with reality. He whose excessive juvenile idealism and intoxication with oratory had almost made him a Jacobin, a disciple of the new cult of unrestricted democracy, nevertheless learned by his difficulties with men and nature to distinguish between false and deceptive ideas of liberty and real liberties, between chimerical rights and those that served the common weal. He thus anticipated Auguste Comte in positivist maxims; these offspring of his genius were at once concrete and general, intuitive, deductive, and constructive. Even today his views on the organization of a stable government and the relative importance and balance of rights, duties, and capacities come to the fore after every disturbance; like the unvarying voice of wisdom, they appear after each revolutionary orgy, monotonously similar each to the preceding, and are heard above the destructive greed of the demagogues, always the same, to be ended by the same Brutus.

A realist by disposition, a romantic by inclination, he modified his beliefs as experience dictated. The persuasive lyric orator whose impassioned harangues incited to war was the prudent tutor of young nations, who sagely recommended moderation and adjustment without foregoing innovations or ideals.

And he had the soul of a poet, which did more than exalt fame and be aware of the moral beauty of history, which was sensitive to more than the luxuriousness of triumph. Leaving out of account the lyric ardor of his proclamations, we find on every page of his innumerable letters, whose aptness of expression is due to his vivid mental clarity, quick accurate touches—numberless transparent facets to reflect his qualities as moralist and man of sensibility; traits emphasized by a gift of style which seems to bring him actually before the eye and ear. And what subtle means of compulsion did this compelling man possess!





MOUNT CHIMBORAZO, MONARCH OF THE ECUADOREAN ANDES.

"Ladder of titans, crown of the earth, impregnable battlement of the universe," Bolívar called this peak in the magnificent "Rhapsody" inspired by his ascent of the mountain on July 6, 1822.

The road from a life of ease to a life of heroism he traveled with all its recurring vicissitudes, from the familiar nobility of friendship or the rude heartiness of the bivouac to the sublimity of genius.

As for the inner man, it is common knowledge that, although Bolívar lived pouring out all of himself, prodigal of everything—money, affection, praise, rewards—in his moments of silence, at the core of his being, he bore, ineradicable, intact, a premature sorrow: after the untimely death of his beloved, there was to be seen in his eyes the shadow of grief, the image of his bride dead in the flower of her youth. . . . This fragile rose of his morning left to him in a wordless lesson, more lasting than the apotheosis, a realization of the brevity of happiness, the emptiness of a soul to which all had been given.

So in the dawn of life the young impassioned gallant learned from melancholy and fleeting beauty to rise to the philosophy of the ruined Forum, of the greatness and decay of empires—to all that noble philosophy of his most far-reaching contemplations, which enabled him to attain equanimity and even a marble impassivity in the final tragedy.

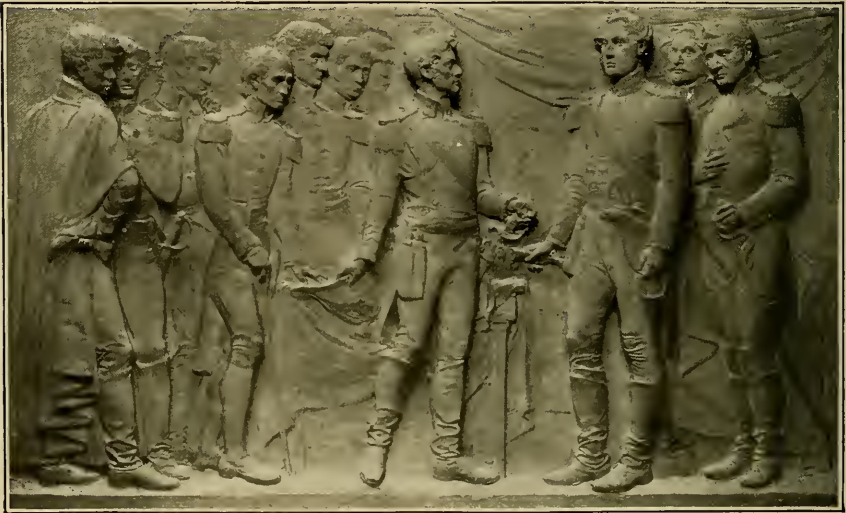
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It is the privilege of the representative of Ecuador to express the tribute with which the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union renews the homage so magnificently rendered to the memory of Bolívar on the recent commemoration of the centenary of the Liberator's death. Happily, from my country—upon which Venezuela, the cradle of the Liberator, conferred in a solemn official ceremony the not unmerited title of *Procerato de la Lealtad*—come to mind pictures and incidents typical of those in which the people, with a sure, instinctive poetic sense, like to paint on a grand scale, without retouching, their chosen heroes. Some brief sketches, although traced by no master hand, should in themselves evoke the sense of history in action.

Indeed, both during his rapid journeys through our country and before, as well as after his disillusionment in other regions, we offered to the Liberator the most filial tribute of fervor and fidelity. We gave him disappointments, too, but not the bitterness of ingratitude. There were some reproaches and criticism of Quito and its citizens, typical of those that came from Bolívar's tongue or pen, crisp with hasty wrath, only to be forgotten in fervent entreaty. Bolívar's penetrating intelligence was aware of the faults of each nation, but his generous heart transfigured them in the light of a common hope.

The glory of Bolívar belongs to no one nation in particular, because it belongs to all together. But each land contributed something to it. Ancient Quito gave him, as lasting emblems and symbols, a mountain and a river, a poet and a woman.

For we gave him Chimborazo—which he himself called, in his sublime *Rhapsody*, “ladder of titans, crown of the earth, impregnable battlement of the universe”—to mount, so that the entire world should behold him on a suitable pedestal. After he had descended from the summit of Chimborazo at the end of his unwitnessed dialogue with Eternity, we opened for him on the shores of the Guayas a spacious stage for that impressive drama, that pathetic encounter in which the two arbiters of the New World—still in the dark stages of evolution—weighed, not their destructive rivalry, but their creative genius, and decided, in admirable harmony, upon the collaboration of their powers which, if their souls had been less noble, would have been antagonistic and fatal to the common task.



THE MEETING OF BOLÍVAR AND SAN MARTÍN IN GUAYAQUIL.

A bas-relief by Isidore Konti on the façade of the Pan American Union. The result of the historic interview between these two leaders was that “the Argentine resigned his sword and the bold Colombian took the lead.”

When Bolívar and San Martín met on the shores of the Guayas, it was as if the seething wave which had risen from the Caribbean to cross the inaccessible peaks of the Andes were embracing on the shores of the Pacific that other wave from the Atlantic which, gathering itself together and increasing at Chacabuco and Maipú, had come in a like foam of glory to meet it; and neither giving way to the other they united in one great surge, which spent itself in the supreme victory of Ayacucho. The magnanimous San Martín, never greater than in yielding, gave way to the hero of Colombia; his exemplary probity marked the summit of two equal glories, equal in moral grandeur although distinct in their predestined result. There “the Argentine resigned his sword and the bold Colombian took the lead.” He took the lead to conclude their common task.

When the arduous task of fourteen years of warfare had been finished, and peace had begun to winnow the harvest of enemies and of laurels, history, in eager attention at the feet of the hero, contemplated in silence the still throbbing spectacle. She seemed to be awaiting the momentary appearance of an ode whose lyric rapture should unfold—over that far-flung ocean of those destinies in which were still floating, like driftwood, vestiges of an immense empire and, like omens, the vital elements of a new world—the great wings of poetry, the only adequate interpreter of so vast and portentous a mystery.

The clarion epic of Olmedo then announced definitively to the world the glory of its eponymous hero. In that sublime poem Bolívar was

#### BOLÍVAR AND OLMEDO.

From a canvas by the notable Ecuadorean artist, César S. Villacres. "The clarion epic of Olmedo then announced definitively to the world the glory of its eponymous hero. In that sublime poem Bolívar was immortalized in the same manner as were the heroes and demigods of antiquity. The 'Canto a Junín' is his Iliad; there is no greater in the Spanish language."



Courtesy of Dr. Homero Viteri Lafronte.

immortalized in the same manner as were the heroes and demigods of antiquity. The *Canto a Junín* is his Iliad; there is no greater in the Spanish language.

And if, to deify the hero, the hymn of apotheosis emerged from the heart of an Ecuadorean, to humanize him there sprang from Ecuadorean soil the love of Manuelita Sáenz.

"My dear", Bolívar wrote to her, "do you realize that your charming letter has given me great pleasure? It has a quality which would make me adore you for your admirable spirit alone. . . . I do not know how to cut this knot which even Alexander with his sword would only entangle more and more, since it is not a question of the sword or of might, but of love; of my love, in a word, for Manolita, the beautiful."

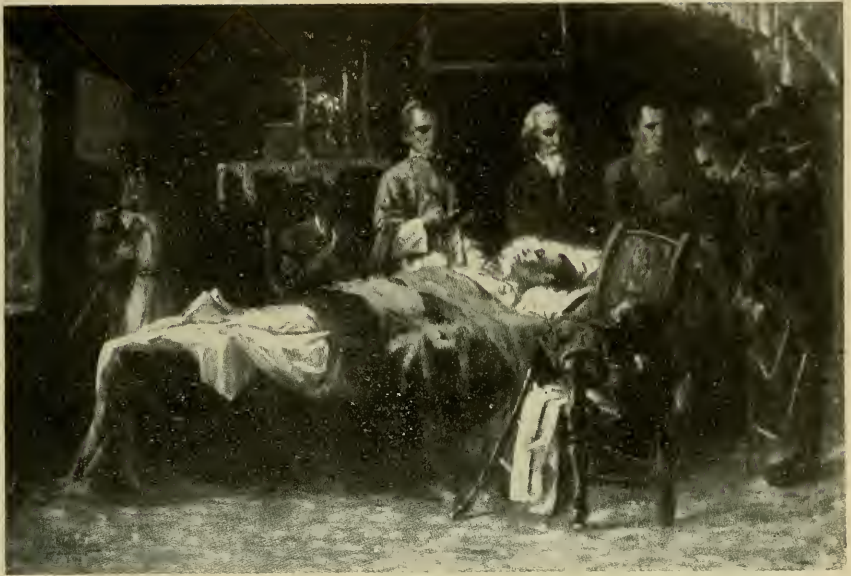


Knowing her lover, the enamored *Quiteña*, brave and cheerful, followed Bolívar by mountain and valley, by river and crossroad; and knowing the significance of his life for the great American fatherland, she watched over him, humbly, vigilantly; she did not sleep in order to guard him in the midst of ambushes. She saved his life on that September night. . . .

Perhaps even in a brief summary it is not enough to recall these facts, which seem to offer themselves only as the tangible evidence and poetic luster of his glory. It is impossible to forget that when he was denied and disowned by Venezuela, his native country, by Colombia, his creation, by Peru, his prize, by Bolivia, his child, openhearted Quito offered to shelter him from misfortune. If she could have served as refuge for him, she would have made from his misfortune her greatest fortune. She felt poor and unworthy to shelter such great defenseless glory; but at twilight, rags seem brocade when covering misery with a warm heart.

The sad story is well known. Disillusionment had so embittered his soul that Bolívar's only desire was to retire to Europe and sever his ties with America. "I have decided never to return or serve my thankless compatriots again", he wrote, refusing every offer. But he had no money . . . ! The prisoner of his poverty was this man who, according to his own words, "wished he had a fortune to give to every Colombian"—after having given away his own wealth, some here and some there, as though it were everybody's patrimony. Overlord of five nations, who had refused the million which Peru had offered him in a grateful mood, he could not even count on the still unratified pension which the Colombian Congress had decreed for him. From his copper mines and lands in Aroa, the remains of his vast fortune and estates, he had nothing left but the hope that his agents could arrange a sale to an English company, and some land titles threatened by lawyers in his own country. Exiled by Venezuela, he could not even return to his native land to defend his remaining property. He had neither the resources nor the means to live in his America; he felt the urgent need of settling his accounts, of expatriating himself. "Where will you go, sir, with the six or eight thousand pesos you have left? Are you going to appear in a foreign country in such indigence?" General Montilla asked him, with the rude tenderness of a loyal soldier.

Bolívar was obsessed with the idea of departing. It was a vain hope. Ill, prematurely old, almost prostrated, the assassination of the Grand Marshal of Ayacucho overwhelmed him. His grief wrested from him a supreme elegy, but thenceforward he was never free from fever.



THE DEATH OF SIMÓN BOLÍVAR, THE LIBERATOR.

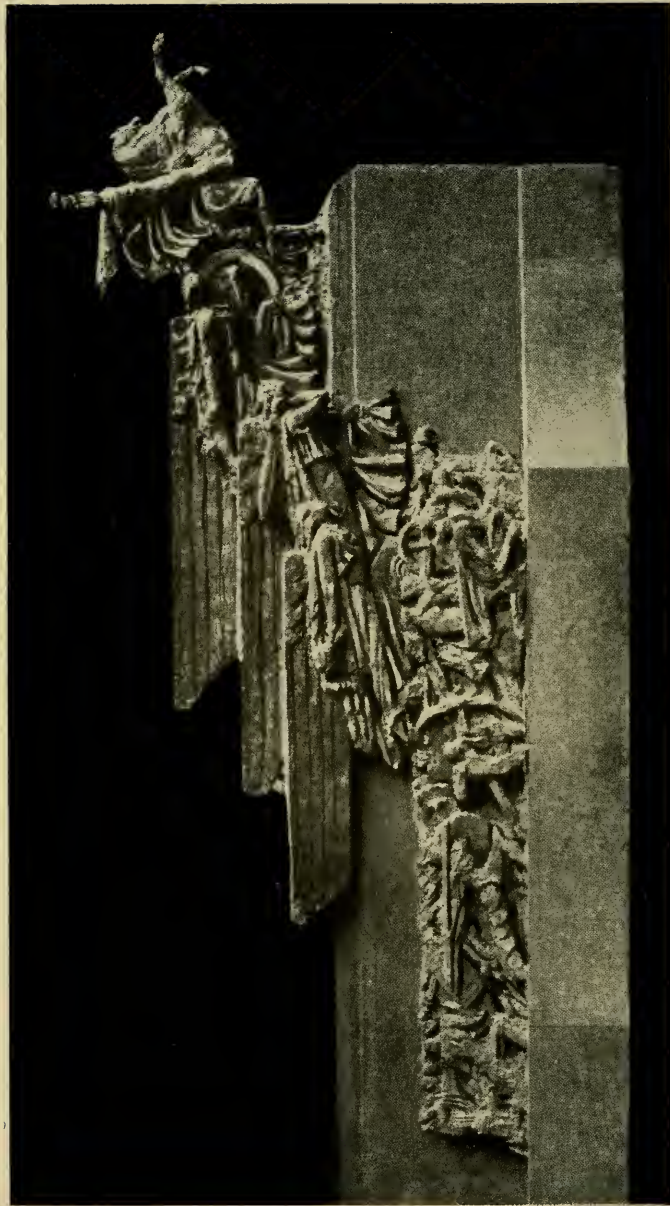
From the painting by Camilo Moncayo.

There in Santa Marta, Bolívar, august and solitary, remembering all the past, seems another King Lear without a faithful Cordelia.

What mattered to him now the note of the Minister Azuero, who informed him that he must not remain in Colombian territory. They were expelling him. . . ! Indeed, the only thing he wanted was to get away.

The long-awaited frigate finally appeared. But his few faithful friends dissuaded him. Finally he said to them, "Of my own free will I had resolved to go away; but now that I am ejected I must not do so, for the honor of Colombia, for the honor of Venezuela. And more than this, I feel that I am dying; my time has come, God is calling me. I wish to draw my last breath in the arms of my former companions, surrounded by the Christian priests of my own country, and with a crucifix in my hands. I shall not go."

Meanwhile the citizens of Quito who, although they had no presentiment of his death, were aware of his straitened circumstances, and were raising a fund to help the Liberator in his voyage of liberation. Since Bolívar had been unable or unwilling to go to Quito, perhaps fearing that he would still find there traces of cloying Colombianism, the whole soul of generous Ecuador went out to him with her humble mite—not alms for one who had been prodigal of his wealth, but a tribute to one who had been great; yet it was not tribute,



THE MONUMENT TO THE LIBERATOR IN QUITO.

This magnificent monument of bronze and stone, the work of the French sculptors, Jacques Sivobada and René Letourneur, is being erected to the glory of Bolívar in one of the most beautiful squares of the capital of Ecuador.



but a gift from the heart as an inadequate token of loyalty. All the anxious people followed in spirit the journey of their emissary, a former aide-de-camp of Bolívar, Col. Teodoro Gómez de la Torre, who, bearing the simple gift, set out by way of the Chocó. Before he was half way to his destination, as he himself recalls in his memoirs, he learned of the Liberator's death; he returned in consternation to give back, as a handful of useless dust, what he had carried as a living pledge of constancy.

That handful of gold, thus stamped, ennobled, and glorified by the soul of a people, we should have kept as a sort of symbol, perhaps as a talisman.

In the century of vicissitudes which began with the deaths of Sucre and Bolívar, Ecuador, generous with the one thing that was left to her, has kept on being poor and faithful, perhaps ill-starred. She has preserved tenaciously and diligently the gratitude she had vowed to the man whom her first Constituent Assembly declared the "Father of the Country." One hundred years later, what is perhaps the most beautiful monument which stone, bronze, and art have produced in America is being erected in Quito. But the worship of his memory glows and lives not in that sanctuary, but in another invisible one of impassioned and selfless study, which in archives, libraries, and universities is reincorporating in the untrammelled truth of fact the essential truth of his soul and of his spirit.

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The labor of Bolívar is not yet done, and until it is completed, we shall not have earned the anticipatory guerdon with which he crowned us, with the admonition to merit it after it had been given and acquired. It is not his fault if, despite his wise admonitions, the apprenticeship of liberty seems harder for us than we expected in the sudden and deceitful intoxication of liberty. Bolívar, who, no matter how great his enthusiasm, retained his clarity of thought and included in his brightest vision the prophetic foreboding of the dangers which threatened us and the evils which still beset us, would not retract his word if he saw us still staggering in blood, like drunken slaves who conceive of liberty only as an excuse for revolt or authority only as an excuse for oppression. He would not lose hope, however; he would extend our credit magnanimously, for he would continue to read in our future the same signs of light which he discerned in the shadows of the colony; and, as rays from vanished stars continue to shine, so we are receiving annunciatory rays from a preordained star—the Destiny of the centuries which we shall not see.



# THE BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SIMÓN BOLÍVAR

By A. CURTIS WILGUS, Ph.D.

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University*

AMONG the most lasting monuments raised to the great Venezuelan Liberator are those products of thought which have appeared in print. Such a one, which was made possible by the munificence of the government of Venezuela, is the recently issued *Bibliography of the Liberator Simón Bolívar compiled in the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union in commemoration of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the birth of the Liberator on July 24, 1783*. This work is the second edition of a much briefer bibliography containing 336 titles, which was issued by the Pan American Union in June 1930, the year in which the world commemorated the anniversary of Bolívar's death. The present edition differs from the first in that it contains 1,424 items and is printed. It was carefully compiled by the staff of the Columbus Memorial Library, of the Pan American Union. It contains a foreword by L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, an introduction by Charles E. Babcock, librarian of the Columbus Memorial Library, and a brief biographical essay on the life of the Liberator by Enrique Coronado Suárez, assistant editor of the *BOLETÍN de la Unión Panamericana*.

Whether or not one is a student of the period of the Wars of Independence in Latin America, one is always impressed and thrilled by the deeds of the great military and political leaders of that era in American history. Many of these men were the George Washingtons, the Alexander Hamiltons, and the Thomas Jeffersons of their respective countries. Many of them were without peers in any nation; many had sincere imitators, and all are worthy of the highest credit that has been accorded them.

Simón Bolívar, as is evidenced by this list of writings, was one of the most versatile leaders of any age. His short life of 47 years was well-rounded in experience and full of ripe far-sighted wisdom. Known and written about by persons in Europe, the United States, and all countries of Latin America, his story has been told in the song, poetry, and prose of many languages. Among the great scholars who have filled numerous pages with his deeds are Diego Barros

Arana, Rufino Blanco-Fombona, José Enrique Rodó, Vicente Dávila, Francisco García Calderón, Felipe Larrazábal, Bartolomé Mitre, Ricardo Palma, Mariano Felipe Paz Soldán, Carlos Pereyra, Jules Mancini, Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, Benjamín Vicuña Mackenna, and many others of equal prominence. Moreover, his letters, which for lack of an autobiography must be accepted as a living monument to the hero, have been admirably edited by Vicente Lecuna, who in 10 volumes has given to the world a picture of the Liberator in his own words.

Not only have great men recorded their opinions of Bolívar, but it is a significant fact, clearly manifest in this publication, that he has attracted the keen attention of the common man to whom he makes such an appeal. Literally hundreds of these individuals have expressed their thoughts in innumerable published speeches, articles, and pamphlets. Many such persons have felt an especial appeal or have been intimately influenced by some aspect of Bolívar's character. In consequence his joys, his sorrows, his loves, his hates, his dreams, his aspirations, his steadfastness, his sincerity, his pessimisms, his optimisms, his military achievements, his political ideals, his defeats, his victories, have all been dealt with by someone at some time in some country. Indeed, one has only to read through the titles contained in this bibliography to assure oneself, if any assurance is necessary, that no aspect of the life of the Liberator of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia has been neglected by those who have felt it incumbent upon them to worship at the shrine of the historic muse in order to lay a wreath at the feet of Simón Bolívar.



# LIFE ZONES IN THE ANDES OF VENEZUELA<sup>1</sup>

BY CARLOS E. CHARDÓN, M.S.

*Chancellor of the University of Puerto Rico*

THE Cordillera of the Andes, which constitutes the physiographic backbone of the continent of South America, has been for the last two centuries the Mecca of physical and natural science. With the possible exception of the high plateau of the Himalayas, no region in the globe displays such a succession of lofty snow-capped peaks and volcanoes and such a superb display of all forms of plant and animal life.

The visit of the French Academicians La Condamine and Bouger to Ecuador, in the middle of the eighteenth century, closely followed by that of the Spaniards Jorge Juan and Antonio Ulloa, served to create a keen interest in South America in the scientific centers of Europe. The Spanish physician José Celestino Mutis, a friend of Linneus, arrived in New Granada in 1763, and enjoying the favor of the viceroy, Don Antonio Caballero y Góngora, organized the famous botanical expedition, which for 30 years accumulated an enormous wealth of plant material, a manuscript of many volumes, and 6,000 colored paintings,<sup>2</sup> which the death of Mutis and Napoleon's invasion of Spain prevented from being published.

The world-famed Baron Alexander von Humboldt, accompanied by the French botanist Aimé Bonpland, led the most notable of the expeditions to the New World during the years 1799-1804. Their visit covered portions of the territories now known as Venezuela, Cuba, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Mexico. Not only was the expedition eminently fruitful in its scientific objectives and in the publication of scores of volumes on the natural history of the New World, but it had great political significance, since it is claimed that Humboldt's conference with Simón Bolívar, shortly after the scientist's return to Europe, was decisive in starting the ambitious youth on the great struggle for freedom which shortly followed.

Jean Baptiste Boussingault, French chemist sent by Humboldt, at the request of Bolívar, to establish a scientific institute in Bogotá; the great naturalist Charles Darwin, whose trip to the Andes of Chile and Peru and to the Galapagos Islands led him for the first time to conceive the theory of evolution; Richard Spruce, with his

<sup>1</sup> Contribution from the Biology Department, University of Puerto Rico, No. 5.

<sup>2</sup> See "A Scientific Resurrection: The Mutis herbarium at Madrid", by Ellsworth P. Killip, in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, March, 1933.—EDITOR.

celebrated wanderings in Amazonia and the plateau of Quito; Edward Whymper, who succeeded in climbing for the first time great Chimborazo and all the high peaks of the Quitonian Andes; the Germans A. Hettner and W. Sievers, who made important geological investigations, are but a few among scores of great men of science who devoted most of their lives to the fascinating study of the geology and the natural history of the Great Cordillera.

Among modern scientists, it has been our privilege to become closely acquainted with two of them possessing the real Andean "fever." These are Dr. Frank Chapman, of the American Museum of Natural History, and Dr. Alfredo Jahn, of Caracas, president of the Venezuelan Society of Natural History.

In 1926, for the first time, we experienced the great sensation of the Andes, on the occasion of making a 6-day expedition on mule-back to the Central Andes, starting from Medellín, Colombia, and traveling as far as the bend of the Cauca River, near Bolombolo (3).<sup>3</sup> Again in 1929 we had the privilege of leading a scientific expedition to the Cauca Valley and had an opportunity to explore successively the three Andean Cordilleras of Colombia, from the Pacific to the interior as far as Bogotá (4, 5). We were greatly impressed during the trip from Girardot, on the Magdalena, to the plateau of Bogotá, 2,650 meters <sup>4</sup> high, to observe the rapid climatic changes which took place within a few hours' time. The change was no less remarkable in the flora: the banana and the coconut soon gave way to coffee, and, eventually, to extensive wheat fields and all kinds of fruits of the temperate zone. The change could even be seen in the rosy cheeks of the children of the upper plateau as compared with the pale, emaciated faces of the malaria-stricken children of the Magdalena. Yet this change took place within 8 hours' time, from 6 a.m. to 2 p.m. What a great contrast in plant and animal life, in agriculture, industry, and even in the human species! Evidently, judging from our experience on this eventful trip, Chapman's and Jahn's interest in the great Cordillera is amply justified; anyone having a keen sense of observation is very deeply impressed at the rapid succession of life forms.

Let us consider now, as a general background, some of the major physiographic characteristics of the great Cordillera of the Andes. Upon reaching southern Colombia the Andes are divided into three great ranges: the *Cordillera Occidental*, extending between the Cauca and the Chocó Rivers, to the Pacific Coast, is the lowest and extends all the way across the isthmus of Panama to Central America; the *Cordillera Central*, the highest and loftiest of the three, separates the Cauca and Magdalena Rivers, includes a number of

<sup>3</sup> The figures in parentheses refer to the references cited, a list of which appears at the end of the paper.

<sup>4</sup> 1 meter equals 3.28 feet.—EDITOR.





snowy peaks, among which is the Nevado del Tolima (5,600 meters) and its lowest point, in the Quindío Pass, has an altitude of 3,500 meters; and the *Cordillera Oriental*, which is the most important, since it separates the Magdalena from the great basins of the Orinoco and the Amazon. We find in this great mountain range at an altitude of 2,650 meters the *Sabana* (plain) of Bogotá, an ancient lake basin, on which the capital of Colombia is situated, amongst wheat fields and all kinds of temperate-zone crops.

The *Cordillera Oriental* of the Colombian Andes also has snowy peaks in Chita and Cocui, at altitudes above 5,300 meters. It extends in the direction north-northeast and in the Department of Santander del Norte, in the place known as the *Nudo de Pamplona*, it splits into two high mountain ranges: one which extends directly north, forming the unexplored *Sierra de Perijá*, bordering the western part of Lake Maracaibo, and the other, extending to the northeast, which crosses into Venezuela and extends for several hundred kilometers, as far as the desert of Lara. This portion of the Andes, which also reaches very high altitudes, and includes several snowy peaks, is known as the *Cordillera de Mérida*, or the Venezuelan Andes. The highest peaks are *La Columna*, or Pico Bolívar (5,002 meters), Pico Humboldt (4,942 meters), and Pico Bonpland (4,883 meters). This mountain range, with its diverse topography and geology and its exceedingly interesting and partly unexplored flora, was the subject of our studies during the 6 weeks' duration of our trip to the Andes.

Plant and animal life in all the high mountains of the world is divided altitudinally into more or less distinct life zones, due to differences in climatic conditions, which naturally affect the character of the flora and fauna. These life zones are observed very appreciably in the great Andean Cordillera, where climate changes rapidly with the high elevations occurring within tropical altitudes, and hence, all life zones can be found within a very limited space of time and territory. With the modern transportation facilities fortunately found in Venezuela, all the life zones are within reach in a few hours' time. A striking example of this was found on our trip along the transandean road from Motatán, in the State of Trujillo, at an altitude of 340 meters, with luxuriant tropical vegetation, to the high point in the Páramo de Mucuchíes, in the Andes of Mérida, at an altitude of 4,080 meters, where a temperature very near the freezing point is to be found. Here all the life zones were seen within only 5 hours' time.

As far back as Humboldt and Bonpland's celebrated trip to the New World (1799-1804) the Andean Cordillera was known to be divided into distinct life zones. These scientists made accurate observations on the altitudinal distribution of plant life, especially in

the description of the paramos. The Colombian Francisco José de Caldas (1) added to our knowledge of altitudinal distribution and its effect on the Andean agriculture. Dr. Alfredo Jahn, of Caracas, in his geographical studies of the Andes of Mérida (8) and in a recent paper read before the Sociedad Venezolana de Historia Natural (9), has made extensive observations and discusses specifically the paramos of the Venezuelan Andes. Jahn's paper is an excellent guide to students and proved very useful in our explorations.

In Dr. Henri Pittier's flora (10) appears a detailed treatment on altitudinal zones. Dr. Frank Chapman, in his bird studies of Colombia (2), gives an excellent discussion on the life zones of the Andes and their altitudinal distribution. His work is cited here as one of the most interesting contributions on Andean natural history. Following both Jahn and Pittier as a basis, we have prepared a brief discussion on the subject, with slight alterations drawn from our own observations.

The altitudinal life zones in the Andes are divided into tropical, subtropical, temperate, and paramos, which correspond to the *tierra caliente*, *tierra templada*, *tierra fría*, and *páramo* of other authors. The last four names are generally applied throughout Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador.

#### 1. TROPICAL ZONE (TIERRA CALIENTE)

*Altitudinal range: From sea level to 800 meters*

As the name implies, this is the warm torrid zone with distinctly tropical vegetation. It covers by far the largest area of the territory of Venezuela, comprising the entire Caribbean seaboard, the extensive Maracaibo basin, the Goajira peninsula, most of the States of Lara, Falcón, and Yaracuy, the Valencia Lake basin, the great llanos, the delta region and the upper reaches of the Orinoco, Casiquiare, and Río Negro. The tropical zone is very important from an agricultural standpoint, producing most of the sugar, all of the cacao, coconuts, cotton, tobacco, bananas, and considerable corn, and supporting by far the largest share of the animal industry of the country.

In Pittier's book (10) the limits of the tropical zone are set between 0 and 1,000 meters. This limit, if applied strictly, would include the Caracas Valley within the tropical zone. The climate of perpetual spring enjoyed by the capital makes it fall more fittingly into the subtropical zone; therefore Pittier's upper limit is proposed here to include from 0 to 800 meters.

The character of the forest vegetation of the tropical zone varies from the rain forests of the upper Maracaibo basin to the intermediate or deciduous forests of the Yaracuy Valley and Upper Llano (region of Parapara and Ortiz). It may also be a xerophytic growth of spiny Mimosaceae and Cacti, as in the La Guayra-Macuto seaboard, or



purely desert, as in the rolling country from Barquisimeto to Carora and beyond, in the States of Lara and Falcón.

Under climatic conditions so diverse, furthermore varying so much with rainfall precipitation, it is natural to expect great differences in the flora within the tropical zone.

## 2. SUBTROPICAL ZONE (TIERRA TEMPLADA)

*Altitude: From 800 to 2,000 meters*

According to Pittier (10), this zone ranges from 800 to 2,000 meters altitude. That this range is correct seems apparent after comparison with other authors. Hettner (7) places it between 1,100 and 2,000 meters, a criterion which is followed exactly by Führmann and Mayor (6) in their excellent charts on the distribution of plant and animal life in the Colombian Andes. Wolf (12), on the other hand, places the subtropical zone between 1,600 and 3,000 meters, but this author was referring to mountains, most of which are on or near the line of the Equator, while the Venezuelan Andean system is located from 7°30' to 9°30' north latitude, the Cordillera de la Costa, or Caribbean system being at 10°30' N.

In our judgment the subtropical zone should end with the lower limits of wheat cultivation. The limits of wheat naturally vary, and consequently the upper limit of the subtropical varies also. On the basis of our own observations we have placed the lower limit of wheat cultivation between 2,100 and 2,300 meters, although in Bailadores, wheat was found at a little above 1,850 meters. Evidently 2,000 meters seems a logical and conservative altitude at which to place the lower limit of wheat in the Andes of Venezuela.

The subtropical zone is abundantly covered by rain forests of luxuriant growth. This is especially true in the Cordillera de la Costa, along the high point of the Maracay-Ocumare road and the upper Aguada River, above the Valencia electric plants.

On the exposed mountain sides of the Cordillera de la Costa the primitive forest vegetation is gone and the range presents a barren, desolate, and sometimes deeply eroded appearance. These barren mountain sides are characteristic of the lower portions of the Silla de Caracas, but forests are commonly found at the same altitude in the sheltered, protected ravines, as in the Chacaito gorge, near the Caracas Country Club.

The lower subtropical zones, especially the Caracas Valley, grow very good sugarcane, while the upper portion, between 1,200 and 1,700 meters, raises most of the coffee, the main agricultural export of Venezuela. Bananas, an important article of food, are also grown with the coffee.

The subtropical zone is thus very important agriculturally. Its climate is mild and healthful, since it is above the mosquito line. Sometimes, however, it is reported to be too humid.



The subtropical forests in the Andes of Mérida are similar to those above described in the Cordillera de la Costa. At the base of the Sierra Nevada the rich forest growth was abundantly present.

As we approach the dry climatic conditions of the Táchira River, on the Colombian border, we found the forests deciduous, not luxuriant as in the rain forests above mentioned. Here the forests were very dry. Evidently conditions were approaching those of the deciduous forests in the tropical zone during the dry season. A similar condition was found a few weeks later on the plains of Yaracuy.



Courtesy of Carlos E. Chardón.

#### A WHEAT FIELD IN THE TEMPERATE ZONE.

Growing between Timotes and Chachope, in the Andes of Mérida, this wheat was found at an altitude of 2,650 meters.

### 3. TEMPERATE ZONE (TIERRA FRÍA)

*Altitude: From 2,000 to 3,000 meters*

Pittier (10) does not make a distinction between the temperate and the paramo zones. He considers everything between 2,300 and 5,000 meters as *tierra fría*. Jahn (9) and other authors recognize and segregate the paramo as a distinct life zone. Führmann and Mayor (6) limit the temperate zone to the altitudes between 2,000 and 2,800 meters. Hettner (7) established it between 2,100 and 3,000 meters, while Wolf (12), working on the Equator, mentions a "subandean" (or temperate) zone which he places between 3,000 and 3,400 meters.

If we accept the criterion that the lowest limit of wheat cultivation marks the beginning of the temperate zone, then we have to determine from our notes the altitudes to adopt. That the altitudes differ

is evidenced by the following figures based on our own observations made along the transandean road:

	Páramo de Timotes	Páramo de Mucuchíes	Páramo de la Negra
Lower limit of wheat.....	<i>Meters</i> 2, 100	<i>Meters</i> 2, 300	<i>Meters</i> 1, 850
Upper limit of wheat.....	3, 700	3, 650	2, 300
Lower limit of <i>Espeletia Schultzi</i> .....	3, 100	3, 600	3, 000

There seems to be appreciable differences between the first two paramos in spite of the fact that they are part of the same range



Courtesy of Carlos E. Chardón.

#### THE PICTURESQUE VALLEY OF TIMOTES.

In the background may be seen the town of Timotes, where the expedition established its headquarters for a week.

known as the Nudo de Apartaderos, the Páramo de Timotes being on the Timotes-Chachopo, or windward side, and the Páramo de Mucuchíes on the Apartaderos-San Rafael, or leeward side. The Transandean Highway <sup>5</sup> crosses both of them and we had occasion to make detailed observations on the upper and lower limits of the wheat belt.

The difference on the "Páramo de la Negra" above Bailadores, on the border between the States of Mérida and Táchira, is still more marked, the wheat belt beginning as low as 1,850 meters. It may be mentioned, however, that the wheat fields examined were not thriving until they were close to the 2,000-meter line. Therefore, it may be

<sup>5</sup> See "The Simón Bolívar Highway," in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, March 1933.—EDITOR.

relatively safe to conclude that the lower limit of wheat is to be found between 2,000 and 2,300 meters, depending on topographical and other factors, and this altitude may be adopted also as the lower limit of the temperate zone. The upper limit of this zone, for reasons which will be discussed later (under the fourth zone), will be the lower limit of *Espeletia Schultzi*.

The temperate zone has a tolerably cold climate (46°–54° F.) and its rural population is made up of Indians, either pure or mixed with some white blood. The country side has rather poor shrubby vegetation, due to appreciably less precipitation than in the subtropical zone, abundant natural pastures and wheat fields, divided by low stone fences. Wheat and potatoes are the staple crops.

The temperate zone in Venezuela is relatively small, being restricted mostly to the three Andean States of Mérida, Táchira, and Trujillo. It is of importance agriculturally as being the source of wheat production, but the low yield caused by poor methods and poor seed makes the product too expensive to compete with northern grain, outside of the three above-mentioned States.

#### 4. THE PARAMO ZONE

*Altitude: From 3,000 meters to the snow line at 4,600–4,800 meters*

The paramo zone is the most interesting of the life zones of the Andes, since it shows to the highest degree the struggle of plant and animal life against conditions of extreme cold temperature. It includes the territory above the temperate zone as far up as the limits of perpetual snow on the very high peaks. It presents to the traveler a superb display of bright colored flowers (*Espeletia*, *Chaetolepis*, *Hypericum*, *Lupinus*, *Cantiana*, etc.) and numerous colonies of low shrubs which gradually disappear with the altitude.

What is the lowest limit of the paramo zone? Hettner (7) and Führmann and Mayor (6) fix its limit at 3,100 meters and 2,800 meters, respectively. Jahn (9), in his interesting paper, considers as paramo zone everything that is found above 3,000 meters altitude, although in many slopes and valleys the paramo descends to 2,400 meters altitude.

The paramos, according to Jahn (9), cover a comparatively small territory in the three States: 900 square kilometers<sup>6</sup> in Trujillo, 2,600 in Mérida, and 600 in Táchira, making a total of 4,100 square kilometers. The high peaks of the Cordillera de la Costa, Silla de Caracas (2,640 meters) and Naiguatá (2,765 meters) also exhibit small stretches of paramo vegetation on their barren summits.

The characteristic plant of the paramo is the *frailejón*, a giant dandelion which grows several feet high. In the public mind the names paramo and *frailejón* always go together, so close is their

<sup>6</sup> 1 square kilometer equals 0.38 square mile.—EDITOR.



association. The genus was described by Humboldt and Bonpland based on three species collected in the Andes around Bogotá, but in Standley's monograph (11) 17 species are recognized. We will mention here only two of the more common species, and deal with them in so far as they can be of use in determining the lower limits of the paramo zone.

*Espeletia Schultzii*, the commonest species, was in full bloom in August and September, with beautiful large yellow flowers and large, woolly leaves. It was seen for the first time above Chachopo, on the Páramo de Timotes, where the altimeter read 3,100 meters. It was



Courtesy of Carlos E. Chardón.

#### MEMBERS OF THE EXPEDITION NEAR PICO DE GAVILÁN.

In this picture, taken above 4,000 meters, the scant vegetation of the upper páramo is clearly evident.

the predominant species higher up, at Almorzaderos as far as the Monument.<sup>7</sup> At station No. 78, the highest point on the Trans-andean Highway, it was still predominant at an altitude of 4,080 meters (over 13,460 feet). As we went down the road over the Páramo de Mucuchíes it was widely prevalent, but its lower limit was much higher, 3,600 meters. In Laguna Negra it was prevalent, and also lower down the valley at altitudes roughly estimated between 3,200 and 3,300 meters. On the Páramo de la Negra *E. Schultzii* was found near the high point of the road at altitudes of 3,000–3,129 meters.

<sup>7</sup> The author refers to the monument to Bolívar commemorating the heroic crossing of the Andes in 1819.—EDITOR.



*Espeletia neriifolia* differs from the above-mentioned species in being of shrubby habit. It has a much lower altitudinal limit. Jahn (9) reports it as occurring in forests as low as 2,200 meters. We found it common along the steep shores of Laguna Negra (altitude 3,470 meters) and on the Páramo de la Negra as low as 2,450 meters. It is not entirely restricted to the paramos, for it occurs also lower down in mixed forest growth.

Of the two above species of *Espeletia* it seems that *E. Schultzi* is the safest one to use in the determination of the lower altitudinal range of the paramo region. Its lowest limit, from 3,000 to 3,100 meters, is hereby proposed to indicate the lowest limit of the paramos for the Venezuelan Andes. This tentative conclusion is not intended



DIGGING WILD POTATOES AT AN ALTITUDE OF 3,800 METERS.

This photograph was taken above Rincón de la Venta, in the Andes of Mérida.

Courtesy of Carlos E. Chardón.

to cover the high peaks of the *Cordillera de la Costa*, which have not been explored by the writer.

The upper limit is naturally the line of perpetual snow covering the high peaks of the Sierra Nevada de Mérida, which can be seen from Mérida during the bright morning hours. Snowfalls occur occasionally in the paramo country and heavy blizzards are reported as low as Almorzaderos at an altitude of 3,600 meters. The snow covers the vegetation for a few days, but does not kill it.

Very little is known about fungus life in the paramos. Dr. Eugene Mayor collected a few species (mostly rusts) during his trip to Colombia in 1910. Only 10 species are reported in his work on rusts and two additional species by Sydow, which were collected in the real paramo zone at altitudes above 2,800 meters. Two among the

former were collected on the Páramo del Ruiz in the Central Andes of Colombia, at an altitude of 3,700 meters. Since the Venezuelan Andes were hitherto unknown to mycology, our exploration opened new territory to this science, and fungi were collected in the paramo country at higher altitudes than ever before in either Venezuela or Colombia.

Agriculturally the paramo is of little value, although both wheat and potatoes were seen cultivated up to 3,700 meters. These two crops, with a few scattered cows and sheep, furnish a bare subsistence for the frugal Indian population found in the paramo country.

The paramo zone in Venezuela and Colombia is also interesting on account of the occurrence spontaneously of wild species of potatoes, richly represented in the great Andean Cordillera. Jahn collected two species of wild potatoes, *Solanum Otites* and *Sol. paramoense*, in the high altitudes of the Andes of Mérida. We had the good fortune to find two other species in the region above Chachopo, which Pittier tentatively believes to be different from Jahn's. Tubers and seeds of these two species have been sent to Dr. Donald Reddick, of Cornell University, for growing in the greenhouse and for hybridization with the cultivated species.

#### ORIGIN OF LIFE IN THE ANDES

After the enumeration and discussion of the four life zones in the Andes of Venezuela, we wish, in concluding, to bring out some interesting available facts regarding the origin of life in the Cordillera. We have already pointed out that the change in climatic condition determines a change in the flora and fauna and results in fairly distinct life zones. In other words, conditions which determine life, both in plants and animals, change altitudinally in much the same way as they change latitudinally north or south of the Equator, excepting that altitudinal changes are naturally more pronounced and rapid. In other words, it would have taken us several weeks traveling hundreds of kilometers directly south to find the change in life forms which we saw within a few hours' time, going up from Girardot to Bogotá. This phenomenon of the rapid succession of life forms and their distribution into altitudinal life zones have made the Andean Cordillera the mecca of physical and natural science.

Since the Andean Cordillera, according to geologic evidence, is of comparatively recent age, dating from the Tertiary age, the question is, How did life originate in the upper zones? That the Pacific border and the Amazon basin were once a continuous level plain with a rather uniform fauna is evidenced by the similarity of the freshwater fishes and the birds of the western lowlands of Ecuador to those of Amazonia. Suddenly the great Andean Cordillera emerged—probably by two distinct uplifts—upsetting the previous physical

and climatic balance and causing a great revolution in all forms of life. The question is, How did life adapt itself to the new conditions brought about by the Andean uplift? This, in our mind, is one of the most interesting problems in the natural history of the Andes.

Frank Chapman (2) has thrown great light on this important problem by his ornithological studies. He has found that bird life is generally divided into life zones which follow rather closely the above accepted division into tropical, subtropical, temperate, and paramos. He finds that the birds of a given zone do not mix with those of the other zones, and hence they have a rather limited altitudinal range.

After years of intensive study of bird life in the Andes, he concludes that the birds of the subtropical zone have originated through evolution from the birds of the tropical zone, that is, there is evidence of an altitudinal evolution from zone 1 to zone 2; and that the birds of the temperate and the paramo zones have no connection with the life zones below, but, on the contrary, their nearest relatives, or the same species even, are found in southern Chile and Patagonia, under similar climatic conditions. In other words, the birds of zones 3 and 4 did not originate through evolution from the zone below, but rather through latitudinal migration from the southern tip of South America. An interesting example of this is the giant condor, which occurs on the high mountain peaks in Colombia and Ecuador and is found at sea level in southern Patagonia.

Although our scientific studies will be restricted to fungus life, one of the objects of our trip to the Andes of Venezuela was the exploration of the paramos, or zone 4, to determine, insofar as we can, the relations of the species found in the lower zones with those in temperate zones of North America and southern South America. Whether we shall succeed in our object or not we do not know, but there seems to be an indication that some species, at least, of the temperate and paramo zones find their nearest relations in northern United States and Canada.

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VIEW OF THE CORDILLERA BETWEEN LA GUAIRA AND CARACAS.



# ARGENTINE ARTISTS SHOW IN WASHINGTON

By ARTHUR STANLEY RIGGS

*President of the Council, Washington Section, Instituto de las Españas; Editor of Art and Archaeology and Director of the Archaeological Society of Washington; Commander, Order of Isabel the Catholic*

IN all art of real value, the impress of race is necessarily strongly marked, and while graphic art is essentially a matter of individual expression, it avails little that the artist have perfect technique if he lack to any great degree that rich, strong, heady tang of his native soil which alone can give his work its fullest power and achievement. If we grant this premise, which seems to me inevitable, the exhibit of some 77 etchings, lithographs, woodcuts, and aquatints by a group of Argentine artists, held during May at the Corcoran Gallery of Art in Washington, assumes an importance hardly to be overestimated.

For a long time the United States has needed the tonic effect of exactly this sort of intrusive culture. The North American painter, etcher, engraver, and lithographer is an exceptionally capable worker. Any exhibit of current art discloses that. On the other hand, the North American viewpoint is in danger of becoming stale, so far as the great majority is concerned, and when the trite and obvious prevail through a lack of vision, the finest technique in the world cannot save the result from insipidity if from nothing worse. Recent country-wide exhibits of painting and sculpture have given point to this myopia on the part of our painters. Very few of them appear to realize that their art can be truly representative only so long as it gives fresh emotional responses to the beholder; only so long as the painter can make his canvas, through contemplation by the beholder, at one with the patron to such an extent that it creates in him the ability to carry on and render even more compelling the thought and purpose of the painter. This is true regardless of the type of the painting; it may be portrait, or still life, its antipode; landscape, marine, nude, or figure study. Objective naturalism is all very well in itself, but it must be as fresh as it is distinctly native and vigorous to attain its purpose.

There is unquestioned freshness and appeal to this recent Argentine show. Some three years ago the Argentine-American Cultural Institute was formed by a group of prominent citizens in Buenos Aires to foster better cultural relations between the sister republics. Lecturers from each country were to visit the other, educators were to be



"WORKERS", AN ETCHING BY BENEDICTO MASSINO.



"THE YOKE", AN ETCHING BY HIGINIO MONTINI.

exchanged, and art exhibits sent to circulate both north and south of the Equator. The current exhibition was one of the beneficent results of the Institute's work. If we may judge of that organization's other activities by the value and success of this one, the Institute will go far and serve a most useful and civilizing purpose, at least in the United States.



"THE CITY", A WOODCUT BY POMPEYO AUDIBERT.

In the 77 pictures hung on the Corcoran's walls, some 19 etchers and other artists—two of them women—disclosed in the clearest fashion two exceedingly important things. The themes they chose were all big, all strong. Their presentation was as fresh as a cool breeze, even while presenting every subject with a vitality of race and a personal individuality astonishing to most North Americans who took the trouble to see the show understandingly. Hardly less astonishing than the treatment was the essential simplicity and triteness of each subject. A straight landscape, a portrait, the façade of a cathedral, a "bit" on the river in the gloaming, a dancer and a group of dancers—here was nothing unusual or exotic to demand either unusual handling or great imagination.

In every instance, however, the artist saw straight, grasped the fundamentals of his problem, set himself no absurd technical obstacles to be overcome, and indulged in no whimsical exaggerations. Instead he or she gave an honest, straightforward rendering of clear vision, so thought out and understood that, though the spectator in Washington instantly felt the tang of a great, strange, little known people, the beholding eye caught at once the new significance and emphasis the simplest thing or the most familiar object can have when approached with sympathy and inspiration. Of artistic sophis-



tication there was ample evidence; yet it was so adroitly restrained and kept in leash that the major effect was one of sheer artlessness in most cases.

The show was not any too well hung to produce its best effects; yet even so, the strong, racy, Latin flavor of a rich soil was evident throughout, notwithstanding the astounding diversity of subjects and treatments, with monochrome, tints, and polychrome handling, all playing their part in a variegated pattern of exceeding richness. In the sense of dating, this show was again of interest. Most of the work disclosed the thorough knowledge of the authors in the handling of light, and none proved their mastery more fully than Pompeyo Audibert, whose *The City* gave one the feeling that here at least was a sort of super-modernism at its best which revealed what can be done with heavy, solid treatment of highlight and shadow by bringing the time-worn methods of the wood-block engraver up to date and adding the painter's extra skill. This print grows in importance with study. While it is quite possible to dislike it and the entire school it represents, it is impossible to refrain from admiring the remarkable skill and imagination it reflects, particularly as to its directness and its emphasis of the psychology of the beholder.

Adolfo Bellocq, with his profound and mystical study of *Love*, strikes the antipode. No North American could conceivably have produced this work, because the North American mind does not think along such lines. Yet all of us can instantly appreciate the illuminating power of the artist's vision once it is revealed to us. The implications and connotations are such that the observer carries on the poetic thought in his own soul, endowing the picture from his personal experience and suffering. It is allegory of a sort whose universality of thought and interest touch not one class but all mankind, regardless of race or condition. The same artist reveals his power in his *Steel Workers*, a massive construction full of the hard metal of the theme, big without the least touch of the grotesque affected by so many moderns, and displaying a profound grasp of the fundamentals of sound art. As an anatomist Bellocq stands high.

Lorenzo Gigli's drypoint *Figures*, showing a young mother nursing her infant while a child holds a nosegay toward a gnomelike ancient and a hard and barbaric-looking younger man looks on, is an example of that racial spirit already referred to, which is so exotic to the North American scene, yet which, studied carefully, reveals all the elements of a profound psychological analysis of all humanity. It is an utterly simple piece of work, executed with strokes of the needle which tell at every point, and an economy of both physical and spiritual detail which compel the beholder to think out the question posed for himself.

It is of course most unfair to single out for mention any of these works where all are so provocative and so excellent technically.



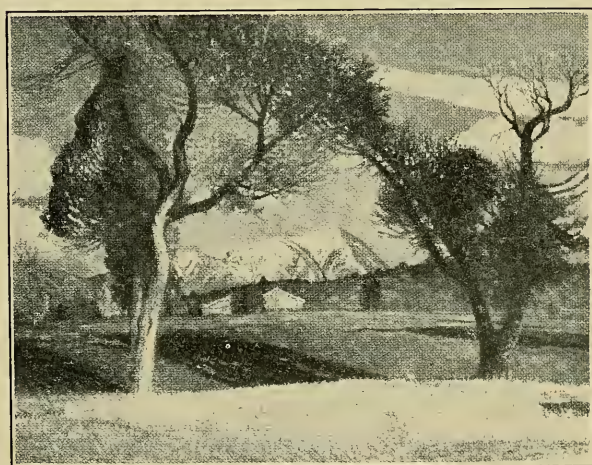
Nevertheless, one hardly escapes the conviction that the sane thinking, sound instruction evidenced and clear vision of these young men and women of the Argentine have certain high spots. Of the two women exhibitors, Carmen de Souza Barzuna and Catalina Mortola di Bianchi, it is difficult to award either the primacy. Señorita de Souza's delicate study of *La Plata Cathedral*—to mention but one of her several exhibits—though fine-spun in its technical expression, nevertheless conveys all the enormous weight and solid permanence such a structure has in actuality. Her sister etcher, Señorita Mortola,



"THE GUARDIAN," AN  
ETCHING BY CATALINA  
MORTOLA DI  
BIANCHI.

also shows a wide range of subjects, and in two figure pieces, respectively, a nude torso of a *Dancer* and a group of several girls in the *Dance*, has succeeded astonishingly in arresting not only the motion of whole figures but of catching muscular reactions at precisely the right split second to convey to the mind of the less highly trained lay observer precisely what he should see. All these figures are fluid with the lithe animal grace of the young gymnast, to say nothing of giving us also that far more elusive and evanescent thing, the true spirit of the dance. Other etchings, lithographs, and woodcuts show everything but nudes and marines.

A summary comment upon the exhibition as a whole is that it proves refreshing. The Argentine Republic is to be felicitated most warmly upon possessing so wholesome a coterie of men and women who thus prove their ability to see life without distortion, and whose minds, untainted by any of the groping, blundering *isms* which have been gnawing ruthlessly these many years at our own art, are as fresh and clear as their hands are free and capable. North American graphic art greatly needs exactly the stimulus of such work as these, and one may venture to hope this is but the first of a continuing series of Latin American exhibits which should be seen and understood throughout the entire United States.



## THE INSTITUTO DE LAS ESPAÑAS IN WASHINGTON

FOR 13 years the Instituto de las Españas has been a center of Hispanic culture in New York. Founded at Columbia University under the auspices of the Institute of International Education, the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, the Junta para Ampliación de Estudios of Madrid, and Spanish and American universities, it has well realized its aims: "To promote a broader and more active interest in the language, literature, art, science of the Hispanic civilizations, and to foster the cultural relations between the United States and the Hispanic countries." Under its auspices eminent foreign and native Hispanists have lectured, literary and musical entertainments been arranged, scholarly studies and works of literary merit been published, and the study of Spanish and Portuguese in the United States been furthered.

In the spring of 1933 a chapter of the Instituto de las Españas was formed in Washington, and on May 21, 1933, at the generous invitation of His Excellency the Ambassador of Spain, Señor Don Juan Francisco de Cárdenas, the first meeting was held in the beautiful Spanish Embassy. After a brief address of welcome by the Ambassador, Mr. Arthur Stanley Riggs, the president of the Council of the newly formed Washington chapter, outlined the aims and activities of the Institute. His Excellency the Minister of Ecuador, Señor Don Gonzalo Zaldumbide, director of the executive committee, delivered an eloquent address, in which he once more showed himself an exponent of the great Spanish literary tradition. Musical selections added to the enjoyment of the audience. At the close of the program greetings and good wishes for the prosperity of the new organization were offered by many of the representatives of American nations present.

Their Excellencies the Ambassador of Spain, the Minister of Portugal, the Chiefs of Mission of the Latin American Republics, and the Director General of the Pan American Union have been named honorary presidents of the Washington Chapter. Its president is Arthur Stanley Riggs, Director and Secretary of the Archaeological Society of Washington and Director and Editor of *Art and Archaeology*; the vice president, Dr. Benjamín Cohen, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile, and the secretary, Dr. David Rubio, of the Catholic University. The executive committee is under the direction of the Minister of Ecuador, who adds to his distinguished diplomatic career an enviable reputation as an author. There is also an advisory council, composed of the officers and fourteen members.

The Washington Chapter of the Instituto de las Españas will afford an opportunity for those interested in the varied aspects of Hispanic culture to meet and to strengthen the bonds between the United States and the Hispanic nations of two worlds.

## LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE IN 1932

### IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND BALANCE OF TRADE

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

*Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union*

ADVANCE publicity is given to the following statement of the foreign commerce of Latin America in 1932, which will appear later in the General Survey of Latin American Trade, a publication prepared annually by the Statistical Division of the Pan American Union.

In view of the present exchange difficulties, values are expressed in the monetary units of the various countries, with parity and exchange rates stated.

For purposes of comparison figures for 1931 are given.

#### *Imports, exports, and balance of trade*

Country	Value in thousands of the monetary unit		Monetary unit	Value in United States currency		
	1931	1932		Par	Average exchange rate	
					1931	1932
Argentina:						
Imports.....	516, 484	367, 956	}Peso (gold)-----	\$. 9648	\$. 6674	\$. 5844
Exports.....	640, 558	566, 624				
Balance of trade <sup>1</sup> .....	+124, 074	+198, 668				
Bolivia:						
Imports.....	29, 821	<sup>2</sup> 20, 000	}Boliviano-----	. 3650	. 3248	. 2122
Exports.....	60, 614	<sup>2</sup> 47, 500				
Balance of trade.....	+30, 793	+27, 500				
Brazil:						
Imports.....	1, 880, 934	1, 518, 694	}Milreis (paper)----	. 1196	. 0703	. 0712
Exports.....	3, 398, 164	2, 536, 765				
Balance of trade.....	+1, 517, 230	+1, 018, 071				
Chile:						
Imports.....	705, 902	213, 830	}Peso (gold)-----	. 1217	. 1207	. 0791
Exports.....	824, 739	350, 303				
Balance of trade.....	+118, 837	+136, 473				
Colombia:						
Imports.....	41, 056	34, 309	}Peso (gold)-----	\$. 9733	\$. 9625	\$. 9528
Exports.....	98, 009	70, 397				
Balance of trade.....	+56, 953	+36, 088				

<sup>1</sup> Excess of exports (+) or imports (—)

<sup>2</sup> Estimate in part.



*Imports, exports, and balance of trade—Continued*

Country	Value in thousands of the monetary unit		Monetary unit	Value in United States currency		
	1931	1932		Par	Average exchange rate	
					1931	1932
Costa Rica:						
Imports.....	34,706	23,995	Colon.....	.2500		
Exports.....	57,117	37,536				
Balance of trade.....	+22,411	+13,541				
Cuba:						
Imports.....	80,112	51,014	Peso.....	1.000		
Exports.....	118,866	80,672				
Balance of trade.....	+38,754	+29,658				
Dominican Republic:						
Imports.....	10,152	7,794	Dollar.....	1.000		
Exports.....	13,067	11,164				
Balance of trade.....	+2,915	+3,370				
Ecuador:						
Imports.....	44,076	34,710	Sucre.....	.200	.2000	.1773
Exports.....	56,660	49,298				
Balance of trade.....	+12,584	+14,588				
Guatemala:						
Imports.....	12,971	7,466	Quetzal.....	1.000		
Exports.....	15,167	10,661				
Balance of trade.....	+2,196	+3,195				
Haiti: <sup>3</sup>						
Imports.....	47,882	37,306	Gourde.....	.200		
Exports.....	44,817	36,106				
Balance of trade.....	-3,065	-1,200				
Honduras: <sup>4</sup>						
Imports.....	20,583	16,736	Lempira.....	.500		
Exports.....	40,055	35,163				
Balance of trade.....	+19,472	+18,427				
Mexico:						
Imports.....	216,585	180,308	Peso.....	.4985	.3549	.3185
Exports.....	399,711	304,190				
Balance of trade.....	+183,126	+123,882				
Nicaragua:						
Imports.....	6,015	3,480	Cordoba.....	1.0000		
Exports.....	6,575	4,542				
Balance of trade.....	+560	+1,062				
Panama:						
Imports.....	13,492	8,129	Balboa.....	1.0000		
Exports.....	2,608	2,751				
Balance of trade.....	-10,884	-5,378				
Paraguay:						
Imports.....	10,081	6,418	Peso.....	.9648	.6674	.5844
Exports.....	12,857	12,873				
Balance of trade.....	+2,776	+6,455				
Peru:						
Imports.....	97,925	72,063	Sol.....	.2800	.2807	.1730
Exports.....	197,417	178,529				
Balance of trade.....	+99,492	+106,466				
El Salvador:						
Imports.....	16,535	12,681	Colon.....	.5000		
Exports.....	24,121	14,002				
Balance of trade.....	+7,586	+1,321				
Uruguay:						
Imports.....	114,128	66,518	Peso (gold).....	1.0340	.5536	.4706
Exports.....	80,689	59,950				
Balance of trade.....	-33,439	-6,568				
Venezuela:						
Imports.....	210,758	153,458	Bolivar.....	.1930	.1704	.1509
Exports.....	651,618	628,260				
Balance of trade.....	+440,860	+474,802				

<sup>3</sup> Fiscal year ended Sept. 30.<sup>4</sup> Fiscal year ended July 31.

# PAN AMERICAN DAY IN 1933

By ADAM CARTER  
*Pan American Union Staff*

THIS year Pan American Day<sup>1</sup> was observed, for the third time, in numerous celebrations held throughout the whole Continent. The various Governments, many civic societies, clubs, educational authorities, and other entities expressed on this occasion their belief in and support of inter-American friendship.

Flags were raised in all the national capitals and in many other cities. Besides, there were receptions given by Government officials, ceremonies in which many important aspects of inter-American relations were dealt with by the speakers; public acts of diverse nature, such as pageants, parades, inaugurations of museums, buildings, and other public works; addresses on Pan Americanism broadcast to a whole nation; exercises in schools, and many other manifestations of good will toward the sister nations of America and toward the Union formed by them.

At a reception tendered in Habana to the diplomatic and consular corps, Dr. Orestes Ferrara, Secretary of State of Cuba, delivered a forceful speech in which he expressed the hope that the Day of the Americas would become part of the national traditions of his country. Further on, he added that the work begun by those who fathered the ideals of harmony and cooperation between the peoples of the New World must be actively continued and developed by the men of the present day, and he concluded with the statement that faith must not be lost "in the name 'America', eternal symbol of success and good fortune."

In Rio de Janeiro the Itamaraty Palace, seat of the Foreign Office, was the scene of a special session of the National Federation of Educational Societies, which was very active, through its important "Paz pela Escola" section, in the commemoration of Pan American Day throughout Brazil. The session at the Itamaraty Palace was presided over by Dr. Afranio de Mello Franco, Minister of Foreign Relations, and attended by the diplomatic representatives of the American nations, by members of the Cabinet, by other Government officials, and by the representatives of numerous organizations. Dr. Fernando Raja Gabaglia, professor of law at the University of Rio de Janeiro, was the first to address the distinguished audience.

<sup>1</sup> April 14, by action of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and the Governments of the American Republics, is Pan American Day. Since this year it fell in the spring vacations of many schools, it was celebrated on whatever date in April seemed most suitable to each country.—EDITOR.

The Day of the Americas, he said, "is one of the most noble ideas carried into effect by the spirit of continental solidarity."

The speaker added that the National Federation of Educational Societies is convinced that "by teaching the ideals defining Pan Americanism, which is synonymous with friendship among the American nations, it is making a necessary, an indispensable contribution to educational work." In America, he concluded, "the liberal spirit is unanimous, and is expressed in the domestic life of each State by the republican, democratic form of government, and in foreign relations by a devotion to the principles of good will, tolerance, and peace."

Dr. Ignacio M. Azevedo do Amaral, president of the National Federation of Educational Societies, also delivered a brilliant address, and the ceremonies were drawn to a close after the eloquent words of Dr. de Mello Franco had defined the Pan American spirit and praised the objectives of the Day of the Americas.

In the afternoon of the same day in which the abovementioned reception was held at the Itamaraty Palace, the National Federation of Educational Societies inaugurated in its headquarters a Pan American Exposition, which included the flags of all the American nations and the words and music of their national anthems; literary and scientific works by American authors; statistics and publications of interest in Pan American interchange; samples of products of the various American nations; photographs and publications useful to tourists; and portraits of some of the men who have made great political, scientific, literary, artistic, and commercial contributions to the American nations. The exposition remained open to the public for several days and attracted a large number of visitors. The federation was also active in promoting other celebrations at Rio and throughout the nation.

The Brazilian Institute of History and Geography commemorated Pan American Day by means of a special meeting. The speakers on this occasion were the Count de Affonso Celso, President of the Institute, a distinguished writer and public man, and Dr. Rodrigo Octavio, an outstanding internationalist.

The observance of the Day of the Americas in Buenos Aires was signalized by a public ceremony held at the seat of the Argentine-American Cultural Institute, at which the national educational authorities, the Ambassador of the United States and the American colony in the city were special guests. The speakers were Dr. Alfredo Colmo, President of the Institute, and one of its members, Mr. Ralph Huntington. Perhaps a few quotations from these addresses may be more enlightening than any commentaries thereon. From Dr. Colmo: . . . "Pan American Day, the day of all our nations." . . . ". . . the institution now known as the Pan Ameri-

can Union: the centralized representation of each one of our democracies, intended to coordinate them spiritually to a certain degree, in what pertains to their social systems and their national life." ". . . insofar as it [Pan Americanism] implies mutual understanding, closer ties, cooperation, solidarity and so forth, it should prove to be a blessing." ". . . [Argentina] has always been distinguished by the liberality and generosity of its foreign policies."

Mr. Huntington spoke of Henry Clay as a lover of liberty: "On February 10, 1821, Mr. Clay submitted to Congress a resolution declaring that the House shared with the people of the United States a deep interest in the struggle for liberty and independence being made by the Hispanic-American peoples, hoped that these efforts would be successful, and was ready to do its part in the recognition of the sovereignty and independence of these countries." (This resolution was approved.) "On March 8, 1822, the President sent a message to Congress recommending the recognition of the independence of the South American provinces." Quoting a letter from Bolívar to Clay, dated November 21, 1827: "Please accept this sincere and cordial testimony which I hasten to offer to Your Excellency and to the Government of the United States for your highly valuable contributions to the emancipation of your South American brothers."

On the same evening in which the meeting of the Argentine-American Cultural Institute was held, Dr. Ernesto Nelson, Vice President of the Institute, delivered an address over the radio in which the significance of Pan Americanism was discussed.

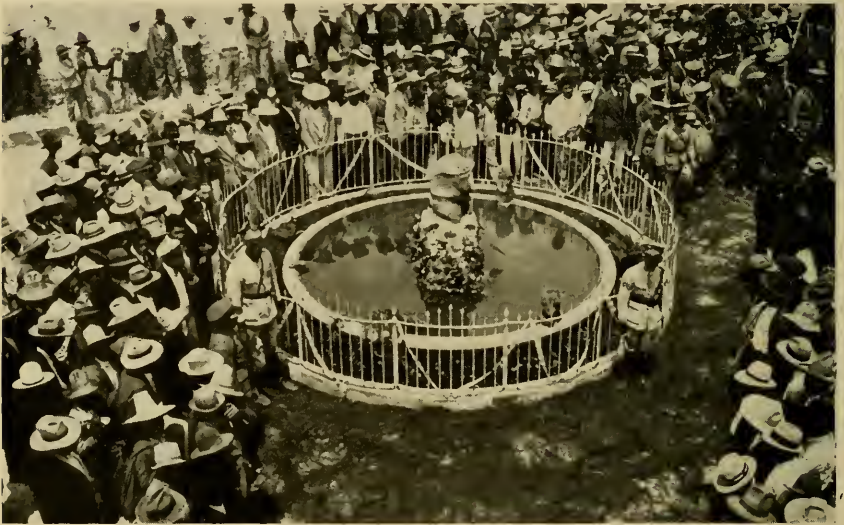
Many other civic societies in the Latin American nations took note of Pan American Day and observed it in diverse forms.

The observance of the day was greatly enhanced by the cooperation of many Latin American Rotary Clubs. The international character of these organizations, the ideal of "Service" promoted by them, the vigorous manner in which their activities are developed, found an entirely satisfactory means of expression in the commemoration of the Day of the Americas, which was celebrated by them at special meetings, public ceremonies, and banquets in which inter-American subjects were discussed by the speakers, some of whom took occasion to point out the close relationship between certain Rotarian and Pan American objectives.

The exercises held in the schools were one of the most important aspects of the commemoration of Pan American Day in Latin America. As Dr. Raja Gabaglia said in his Rio address, "The schools are immensely important in the effective propagation of the ideas of peace." Also, it might be added, in the propagation of Pan Americanism. It is therefore highly gratifying to know that in a very large number of Latin American schools the day was remembered.



Many professors and teachers used this occasion to address the student bodies and to express their views on the meaning of the traditional, historical, geographical, spiritual, and material bonds that unite the nations of America. In these speeches, as in all the others made on Pan American Day, no blindly optimistic note was heard. The problems confronting the American nations were not ignored, but, on the contrary, freely discussed. It was from the impartial consideration of the many sides of these questions that optimism finally arose: clear-eyed, enlightened optimism. Besides the meetings of which these addresses were part, the school exercises took the form of pageants, playlets, parades, exhibits, and other features in-



THE FOUNTAIN OF THE AMERICAS.

Dedicated in San Pedro Sacatepéquez, a city in the Department of San Marcos, Guatemala, on Pan American Day.

tended to make the Pan American nations better known to the students.

The municipal authorities in Latin America made valuable contributions to the Day of the Americas. Some took the lead in making arrangements for the celebration of adequate ceremonies, others cooperated with the educational authorities in the preparation of school activities in connection with the Day, or did what was considered most appropriate within their sphere of action. An incident which occurred in connection with one of the municipal celebrations may serve to show how multiform were the aspects of the commemoration of Pan American Day. In the city of San Pedro Sacatepéquez, in the Department of San Marcos, Guatemala, the inauguration of a fountain given the name "Fountain of the Americas" was part of the ceremonies held. Four monoliths, from the nearby Mayan ruins

of Chamac, decorated the center and sides of the fountain. A few nights before the observance was to take place one of the monoliths, representing a Mayan god, disappeared and may now be, according to a Guatemala City daily, "on some Indian altar at the bottom of a deep ravine, its features of stone blurred by clouds of copal incense."

Puerto Rico joined heartily in the observance of Pan American Day. This island, in the opinion of one of its most distinguished women, Señora Milagros Benet de Mewton, President of the Pan American Association of Women of Puerto Rico, may become "the link uniting the Northern and Southern portions of the American Continent, as its geographical location and its bilingual school make it fit to be the interpreter of the two races of the New World."

On Pan American Day the Rotary Club of San Juan gave a luncheon at which several honor guests were present. The speakers were the President of the Club; Señora de Mewton; the Hon. James R. Beverley, then Governor of Puerto Rico, and Sr. Filipo de Hostos, Chilean Consul. At a celebration held that afternoon in one of the city's parks Señora de Mewton spoke again, and was followed by the President of the Supreme Court, Sr. Emilio del Toro, by Governor Beverley, by the Chilean Consul, and by the Venezuelan Consul, Sr. Vetancourt. Some of the opinions voiced by Sr. de Hostos are of special interest on account of their significance in the furtherance of Pan Americanism: "No one dare deny today that a high destiny awaits the nations of America." ". . . two South American Republics, Argentina and Chile, proceeding many years ahead of the ideas then prevalent in the world, were the forerunners of the principle of limitation of armaments, and signed in the year 1902 the first treaty of that character recorded in history." "There is ample justification for having faith in the virtuality of the Pan American ideal." "In promoting this ideal, the nations of America perform a task that has a high civilizing and humanitarian significance."

The observance of Pan American Day in the United States could not have been any more gratifying to those who know how important it is that representative groups in this nation should have a comprehensive knowledge of the peoples to the south. A knowledge of the geography and history of these peoples; of their national characteristics; of their traditions, their customs and habits, their psychology; of their spiritual and material structure, their possibilities, their contributions to the development of the New World and to the advancement of civilization; of the ways in which they can be drawn closer to the people of the United States. A knowledge made alive by the spark of human understanding.

The need for a clearer conception of Latin America does exist, and, fortunately, is now beginning to be fulfilled. John L. Merrill, President of the Pan American Society of New York, in an article published in the daily press makes the following statements: "In my school

days I imagined that the word 'America' belonged solely to the United States of America. I fear that many hold that opinion now. We are, however, fast recovering from our provincialism. . . ." "North Americans owe much to the older civilizations in Central and South America. We have been privileged to make important contributions to the welfare and happiness of our neighbors to the south of us, but we are fast learning that they have many attractive qualities which would be beneficial for us to acquire. It is time that enlightened public opinion in the United States recognized the important contributions which the people from Mexico south have made to science, literature, art, and all culture."

Pan American Day was commemorated in Washington at a special meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at which the President of the United States was the guest of honor. His address was exceedingly well received in Latin America, where it was widely quoted, as it also was in the United States. "Your Americanism and mine", said the President, "must be a structure built of confidence, cemented by a sympathy which recognizes only equality and fraternity. It finds its source and being in the hearts of men and dwells in the temple of the intellect."

After the session of the Governing Board had adjourned, the Minister of Venezuela delivered an address to a large audience in the Hall of the Americas, in which he presented to the Pan American Union a bust of General Francisco de Miranda. This was accepted by the Chairman of the Governing Board of the Union, Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States. Addresses were also made by the Minister of Guatemala, Vice Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, and by a Latin American student, Rogelio Alfaro, who spoke on behalf of the students attending the exercises. The June issue of the BULLETIN contains a detailed description of the commemoration of Pan American Day at the Pan American Union.

George Washington University celebrated Pan American Day with a special assembly at which the speakers were Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Minister of Panama, Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, and Dr. Cloyd Heck Marvin, President of the University.

In New York the Pan American Society observed Pan American Day with a luncheon and a program of pageantry, presided over by John L. Merrill, President of the Society. The speakers on this occasion were the Hon. John Bassett Moore, who made an eloquent plea for peace and justice among nations, deplored the intense nationalism now prevalent, and expressed the hope that the Pan American Society would continue its work for international harmony; Enrique D. Ruiz, Consul General of Mexico; Dr. Jacobo Varela,



Minister of Uruguay; and José Richling, Consul General of Uruguay. At the conclusion of the luncheon the guests adjourned to an adjoining ballroom, where 900 high school students of Spanish awaited them, and then an attractive ceremony took place, during which various exercises were held and several speeches delivered.

At the invitation of the Pan American Society, Sr. Pedro R. Rincones, Venezuelan Consul General in New York, delivered an address over the radio on the night of April 14.

Other celebrations in New York included a program of addresses and music given under the auspices of the Pan American Women's Association of the Roerich Museum, at which distinguished representatives of various American nations were the speakers. The Inter-American Group of the Roerich Association broadcast a program in which Latin American music was featured.

On Pan American Day in 1932 the San Francisco chapter of the Pan American Society offered prizes for essays to be written by university students in Latin America on the subject: The Development of Friendship in the Americas. This announcement brought an enthusiastic response from the students, and many essays were received. The committee which read them was composed of Hispanic American and American professors, and awarded the first prize to a Guatemalan student, Vicente Arriola, from the Universidad Central de Honduras. The second prize was awarded to Roberto Pecach, a law student at the University of Buenos Aires. The committee's decision was made known on Pan American Day of this year, and Sr. Arriola's essay appeared in the May issue of *Hispania*, a journal published by the American Association of Teachers of Spanish. The Society played a very important part in the extensive commemoration given Pan American Day in San Francisco.

Cornell University commemorated Pan American Day in a very impressive manner. This University is attended by students from all the Latin American republics, and a special ceremony was arranged at which some of these students spoke and others bore the colors of their respective nations when all the flags of the countries which form the Pan American Union were assembled. The Minister of Panama, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, was a special guest at these exercises and delivered a brilliant address.

The adjective "colossal" can well be applied to the manner in which Miami celebrated the occasion intended to commemorate the ties that bind the American nations. Col. Henry L. Doherty, as honorary President of the Pan American League, invited to the festivities a distinguished and representative group of diplomats, scholars, educators, writers and leaders in diverse fields related to Pan Americanism. The Ministers of Bolivia and Ecuador and



secretaries from the Chilean, Cuban, and Mexican embassies and the Colombian and Panamanian legations were included in this group.

The day after the visitors arrived they were guests of honor at a reception and a concert given at one of the leading hotels. The following day there was a colorful school parade in which 7,000 children took part. Afterward a pageant in honor of the Mexican people, written by Dr. Barbara Ring and entitled *The Return of the White Gods*, was performed in one of the city's beautiful parks by 400 persons. The pageant presented an impressive panorama of the development of Mexico from the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to our days. Immediately before the presentation of the pageant the Governor of Florida, speaking from Tallahassee, addressed the audience and welcomed the visitors. The sessions of a Pan American Institute organized by the Pan American League were a very significant feature of the observance at Miami. Inter-American relations and economic problems were here discussed by a most distinguished gathering. The celebration was drawn to a close by a brilliant banquet and ball, given by the Pan American League and sponsored by its honorary president, Colonel Doherty, and by Mrs. Doherty.

So many societies, institutions, and authorities, highly influential in national life, participated in the commemoration of Pan American Day in the United States that even a mere enumeration of them would be too lengthy. Hearty cooperation was given by schools, universities, women's clubs, rotary clubs, international clubs, chambers of commerce, State and municipal authorities and others. The high position occupied by these collective bodies and individuals, their opportunities for reaching the public and their ability to enhance the importance of any movement they may favor, make their support of Pan Americanism highly gratifying. It is certain that their efforts will have great value in making the various groups of the American collectivity better acquainted with the life of the other Pan American Nations, and thus render a signal service to the development of Inter-American relations.

In concluding this brief account of the manner in which Pan American Day was observed throughout the Continent, it may be said that the events by which it was commemorated are the best proof of its significance to the nations that constitute the Pan American Union.

Leaving the last word on the Pan American ideal to the press, we offer this quotation from an important American daily: "That the mistakes and misadventures of the past are not glossed over but are duly recognized gives substance to the belief . . . that the intellectual and political thesis put forward by Bolívar and supported by so many great and generous minds is founded on the realities of life and consequently will continue steadily to grow in achievement."

# AN ARGENTINE ESTANCIA

By ROBERT MOORE <sup>1</sup>

A visit to an Argentine estancia, or a huge tract of land devoted to agriculture and stock raising, leaves an indelible impression upon any individual who is accorded that privilege.

During my second visit to Argentina I had the pleasure of making such a trip, the invitation coming from a friend in Buenos Aires whose uncle is a wealthy estanciero. We arrived at the estancia, located in the northwestern part of the Province of Buenos Aires, after a train journey of 7 hours, during which I was awe-inspired by the vastness and seemingly limitless nature of the pampas, or plains.

We arrived after nightfall, and hence had no opportunity to see the estancia until the following day. After a refreshing night's sleep, I emerged into surroundings which struck me most pleasantly. From my impressions of this particular estancia, which I believe to be fairly typical of all other large ones in the country, I shall attempt to relate in some detail the general character of an estancia and how it is operated and managed.

This vast estate contains roughly 75 square miles. Its lands extend much farther than the eye can see. On horseback it would require a full day's riding and perhaps more to get even a general conception of its vast domain. Indeed, it is so large in area that numerous outposts are established throughout, all in telephonic communication with each other, for the purpose of regulating the various sections of the huge estate.

Of the various buildings found on this estancia, the first in importance, and by far the most imposing, is the residence of the estanciero and his family. This is a particularly beautiful edifice, a two-story affair, combining in its architectural scheme the characteristics of an American farmhouse and those of a Castilian town house. Ivy climbs all the walls; flower gardens completely surround it; a shady veranda is found at the main entrance. Next in importance is the staff house, which is the residence of the foremen, supervisors, other high employees, and their families. At some distance are located the homes of the colonist tenants and peons and their families. There are also the outposts already mentioned.

In addition there are huge barns for the housing of the carriage horses and dairy cows; storehouses for grains, hay, and other crops, tools, etc.; chicken houses; garages, in which are kept many of the

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<sup>1</sup> B.S. in Economics, University of Pennsylvania, 1929.

agricultural machines, such as tractors, reapers, binders, and power-driven plows; *galpones*, or sheds under which wheat is stacked temporarily after harvest; and finally a group of miscellaneous small structures. Most of these buildings, it should be noted, are made of brick, although there are some wooden ones.

One of the most striking features of this estancia is the great number of sections into which it is divided, territorially speaking. There is an admirable system of fencing, mostly with barbed wire, forming the limits of these divisions. For example, we may find one enclosure 8 miles square, employed for keeping steers, and next to it another section of 5 square miles, which contains nothing but horses. These



MAIN RESIDENCE OF AN ARGENTINE ESTANCIA.

The home of the estanciero is always a commodious building, surrounded by gardens. Often there are fountains, a swimming pool, a golf course, and tennis courts.

enclosures, referred to as paddocks and corrals, range in area from 1 square mile to 15 and are used for a variety of purposes.

It may be interesting at this time to adopt a retrospective viewpoint in regard to this estancia; by possessing some knowledge of its history, the reader will find its present-day system easier to understand and will thereby gain a fuller appreciation of it. It can truthfully be said that the story of the past activities of this estate, which was related to me in an interesting manner by my host, is fairly typical of the history of most large estancias in the Argentine Republic.

The present estanciero's father took possession of the land in the late 1860's, and at that time found a number of rural natives, some of



them Indians, others gauchos, who had "squatted" upon the land, and who were rather difficult to eject. A number of them absolutely refused to leave, with the result that they were taken into the estanciero's employ.

The gauchos,<sup>2</sup> it must be explained, are becoming extinct in Argentina. From colonial days they had been the plainsmen, and were all colonial born. They were largely horsemen, hunters, and owners of stock, and were generally semisavage and illiterate. In a sense they were imbued with a spirit of aristocracy, since they were averse to any plodding and patient work such as agriculture; they were of a roving nature, settling on land wherever they pleased, and



LABORERS' QUARTERS ON AN ESTANCIA IN THE PROVINCE OF BUENOS AIRES.

as the land was bought up and the owners came to raise stock, the gauchos moved on. At times they would risk their independence and hire themselves out to the estancieros for breaking in horses or for work with cattle. In the case of the estancia in question, that is what happened in the early days of its history.

The other natives, including the Indians, who were permitted to remain were allotted pieces of land upon which they and their families were allowed to build huts and to raise crops. Of the crops, one fourth was paid annually to the management as rent. The system had one drawback, namely, the migratory nature of these tenants, who continually moved on to other sections of the country after they had worked the land to their satisfaction. Some of the former

<sup>2</sup> See "Paintings [by Cesáreo Bernaldo de Quirós] of Gaucho Life in Argentina" in the *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union, March 1932.—EDITOR.



squatters did not become tenants, but were taken directly into the estanciero's employ, assisting in stock breeding, agricultural work, and fence-building.

Some years later, more precisely in the late 1880's and early 1890's, one of the biggest single factors in the development of the estancia, and of many others as well, appeared on the scene. I refer to the throngs of Italian agricultural settlers who were at that time beginning to enter the country. The then estanciero, the father of the present owner, was a pioneer in the utilization of this kind of labor. He parceled out land to these colonists on the crop-rental basis, in areas of 300 to 1,000 acres. They and their families proved to be most diligent and patient workers, and in many cases received ample financial reward for their efforts. It was in large measure because of their earnest, sincere labor that this estancia enjoyed such extensive development. Although tenants of this class were quite numerous in that early period, they are comparatively few today, and their descendants are, in the main, employed directly by the management on a money wage basis, as members of the staff.

To return to the present—it will perhaps be interesting at this point to discuss the system of roads and the proximity of the estancia to railroads and towns. The roads leading through the estate are none too good at best. They are quite ample in width and fairly smooth, but because of the total absence of even the smallest stones on the pampas, the roads become a soggy, muddy mire whenever it rains, and during the dry periods of the year they are the last word in dustiness. All of the roads composing the network that serves the estancia are lined on both sides by barbed-wire fences. The estancia house is located but 7 miles from an important railroad, the Buenos Aires-Pacifico, thus being situated strategically for the convenient transportation of crops and stock to markets. The nearest town of any importance is at a distance of 15 miles.

The question of water supply is of great importance. Water has been obtained at great expense and labor by digging artesian and semiartesian wells, usually near trees. They have a tendency to go dry, because the soft alluvial soil continually soaks up the water. To prevent the falling of the water level and to pump the water to the surface as needed, windmills are located near the wells. They form the best and most adaptable system of pumping under the circumstances. In addition, underground pipe lines carry the water to the buildings, to troughs for the stock, and to other sections of the estancia.

As for agricultural activities which, being secondary in importance to stock-raising on any estancia, are carried on mainly by colonists and peons, I found that a system of crop rotation is used, which benefits the fertility of the land tremendously. The land has marvelous



VIEW ON THE ARGENTINE PAMPA.

The windmill is a familiar sight on the pampa, for one is located by nearly every well dug on the plains, to prevent the falling of the water level and to pump the water to the surface as needed.

natural productivity. The 4-year system of crop rotation employed has an added advantage in that it prevents the soil from reverting to the coarse, native grasses so prevalent in this section. The land is usually ploughed, harrowed, and sown in successive pieces; thus it can also be harvested in like manner.

The crops of principal importance are maize, wheat, linseed, and alfalfa. To supplement the alfalfa, large areas are sown with rye grass, which provides ideal pasture for cattle. Maize is planted in August or September and harvested in March or April. There are two varieties of wheat, winter and summer. The times of planting of linseed and alfalfa are variable. The yields of all these crops are



A CORNER OF AN ARGENTINE WHEAT FIELD.

high both in quality and in quantity and they supply a good financial return to the settlers who work them. There are also a number of orchards and vegetable gardens. The agricultural equipment is of the finest type; numerous tractors, reapers, and binders of American and European manufacture are used with great efficiency and excellent results.

Before attempting to discuss the staff and its work in regard to stock raising, it might be enlightening to devote some space to a few words on the subject of the stock itself. Of the 75 square miles which are embraced by the estancia, roughly 50 are devoted to stock-raising, which is the chief function of any estancia. It may be said that the



animals are of extremely high quality, and that English breeding methods are largely used.

I learned that my host owned about 35,000 head of cattle, including Shorthorns and Herefords, as well as cross-breeds with native stock. There are numerous corrals or paddocks containing these cattle, which are usually separated into breeds. There are about 20,000 head of sheep, principally of the Merino and cross-bred varieties. Hogs number about 10,000, as do the horses. The latter are of exceptionally high quality. They are bred for racing and a number of other purposes. In addition, many polo ponies are raised.

The staff of the estancia is headed, of course, by the *estanciero*. Then comes the first assistant, or understudy, called the *mayordomo*; he is particularly valuable during periods while the *estanciero* is away, as he is then in full charge. Next in importance is the *capataz*, or general head of all the peons. In this connection there is a cattle *capataz* and also a sheep *capataz*, whose respective duties are to look after the herds and flocks. Then there are perhaps a dozen *puesteros*, who have varied duties, including guarding the outer gates of the property, riding around the paddocks on the watch for sick or dead animals, and inspecting windmills. At the bottom of the scale are the ordinary laborers or peons, who are entrusted with the maintenance of fences and wells, the drawing of water, the killing of locusts, and general labor.

The staff follows a fairly definite annual routine of work in regard to stock raising, which includes the making of alfalfa hay or silage for supplementary food for the stock in winter. Starting with autumn (March, April, and May) the work includes dipping flocks of sheep in brine tanks for scab, branding and dehorning calves, branding foals, and classifying breeding cows. During June, July, and August, which form the winter, the duties include weaning calves, sowing alfalfa, dipping sheep for scab before lambing, and the beginning of calving and lambing.

The spring months (September, October, and November) find the staff engaged in calving and lambing, branding lambs, shearing, the beginning of haymaking, and dipping flocks for scab. During the summer (December, January, and February) calving and haymaking continue, maggot eradication is instituted, lambs are weaned, and herds and flocks are classified. It must be remembered that the winter is very mild and that the summer is of generous duration.

There are also a number of miscellaneous duties which are done, my host informed me, at various periods of the year. They comprise the vaccination of cattle for anthrax or *mancha* (blackleg), as well as sheep and calf vaccination. In addition, the destruction of locusts is attended to. The handling of colts and breaking in of riding horses also merit special attention.



The bane of an estanciero's existence is the locust. If not successfully combated, either by spraying or protecting the crops and trees with screens, a locust swarm is capable of destroying enormous quantities of vegetation and of wiping out an entire season's profit. They usually come from the north in October or November, hatch their young, go away for a brief period, and then return for an invasion. This does not happen annually, but at intervals of several years. For the control of locusts there exists a Federal Commission which sends out inspectors to the estancias several times a year to see that preventive measures are being taken and to supervise the work. If an estanciero does not comply with the instructions of the Commission, he is liable to a fine.

In conclusion, I should like to point out that estancia ownership and management generally result profitably. This is particularly true of the estancia which I was visiting, as an examination of the books showed me. Regarding estancia life in general, it is true that it is likely to be lonely and rather isolated; however, there are romance and adventure aplenty, with the all-important opportunity to become wealthy. For recreational facilities my host has a completely modern swimming pool, a fine golf course, and a number of good tennis courts.

On the whole, I was favorably impressed with what I saw on the estancia, and, more important, considerably enlightened and broadened by what I had learned. My visit there will always be a pleasant, unforgettable memory. And why? Because I had seen the Argentina which we all read about; the romantic, colorful aspect of the national life; the heart and soul of the country; the *real* Argentina.



# INSECTS, BEWARE!

By LLEWELLYN WILLIAMS

*Field Museum of Natural History, in charge of the Peruvian Division of the Marshall  
Field Amazon Expedition, 1929-30*

TO the people inhabiting a tropical forest region, such as the *montaña* or eastern Andine slope, of Peru, the dominant problem is the quest for food. The chief necessary of life of the Indian as well as the Peruvians living in that remote territory is manioc, or cassava,<sup>1</sup> one of the valuable food plants of the world and the most important one in many tropical countries. The protein of their diet is obtained mostly from fish. A large number of species abound in all the rivers, although generally speaking they are smaller in the upper reaches than in the lower Amazon Valley.

The Indians living along the banks of the main stream and its numerous affluents employ several methods for capturing fish. Nets of various kinds and patterns are frequently employed by the several tribes. Wallace, who traversed the Amazon Valley in the middle of the past century, mentions the use of rod and line by the Indians. The natives ingeniously make their own hooks from palm spines. Among the plant baits used with the hooks may be mentioned the green pulp of the calabash fruit, and seeds of crabwood and guava. During the rainy season fish are scarce and can only be procured by means of the arrow, ants, spiders or seeds having been previously cast into the water to entice the prey to the surface. Some tribes capture fish between the prongs of a wooden trident or stab them with a bamboo spear that has a double-edged blade. The more civilized Indians employ the harpoons with detachable heads that they use for capturing the manatee. Furthermore, dams may be constructed with the object of enclosing an area of water which may then be baled out and the fish caught.

By far the most wholesale and general way in which fish are obtained, however, is through the use of plants possessing toxic properties. Like other races, the Incas discovered that many of the plants about them possessed medicinal, stimulating, or toxic qualities. This wealth of information, perhaps modified somewhat with the passing of time, has been transmitted from one generation to another, and even today it finds application in certain regions of the highlands and among some of the Indian tribes of the adjacent equatorial forest.

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<sup>1</sup> See "Cassava: An Economic Plant Native to Latin America," by José L. Colom in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, September 1932.—EDITOR.

Several species of trees, shrubs and herbs of common occurrence in the *montaña* contain suitable substances which are used by the natives as fish poisons. Among these may be mentioned the irritating latex obtained by incisions made in the bark and sapwood of *Catahua* (*Hura crepitans*), an arboreal species with an extensive natural distribution in tropical America; the ground leaves of a shrub called *Yana-ocuera* or *Ocuera* (*Oliganthes karstenii*) and several species of *Cracca* and *Clibadium*, a shrub known locally as *Huaca*, which

A CUBE OR BARBASCO  
PLANT, PERU.

The root of this plant, long a source of poison utilized by the Indians of eastern Peru in catching fish, has in recent years been the object of extensive research because of the insecticidal value of its rotenone content.



Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip.

usually grows in dry, abandoned land. But the one which is regarded as the most powerful and which is most generally used by the aborigines and Peruvians is an evergreen leguminous shrub which has recently attracted attention due to its active crystalline principle, rotenone, of value in the manufacture of insecticides.

This shrub is also known as *Barbasco*, a general term for plant fish poisons in Hispanic America, but other vernacular names are applied to it in various localities of northeastern Peru, namely, *Barbasco legítimo*, *Huasca barbasco* (*huasca*, a Quechua word, means vine), *Sácha*



*barbasco* (*sácha*, also Quechua, means forest), and *Rumu barbasco* (*rumu* is Cocama, signifying liana). Along the Ucayali River and adjacent territories the terms *Coñapi* and *Pucai* are in use, while in the highlands in the central region of the Republic, the shrub is variously known as *Cube*, *Cume*, *Cubi*, and *Cuyi*. Regarding its scientific determination, Killip and Smith<sup>2</sup> report, "From the vegetative characters it seems clear that the plant . . . is *Lonchocarpus nicou* (Aubl.) DC., described in 1775 as *Robinia nicou* from a plant cultivated in French Guiana." This plant was first described by Aublet from Cayenne, where the local term for it is *Inekou*. In Surinam it is known as *Nekko* and in British Guiana as *Hiari*, *Hiari*, *Heri*, or *Nako*. The *Timbó* employed as fish poison in the Brazilian Amazon is said to be a sapindaceous vine, *Paullinia* or *Serjania* sp., but the term *Timbó* is applied there also to a species of *Lonchocarpus*.

*Barbasco* is encountered in northeastern Peru at altitudes of from 400 to 1,600 or more feet. It occurs in a wild state in thickets, in deserted overgrown clearings and, less frequently, in dense forest growth, generally close to the margin. For propagation it thrives best in open, medium loam, or sandy soil not subject to seasonal inundations. It is planted rather abundantly for use as fish poison in the vicinity of Iquitos, also at Yurimaguas, above the confluence of the Paranapura with the Huallaga River. In the uplands, in the Department of San Martín, it appears that Tarapoto is the center of its propagation. Here it is grown on small patches of cultivated land and on the mountain slopes surrounding the town. It is propagated by cutting a piece of the main trunk and placing it in the soil a few inches below the surface.

The species, as has been said, may be described as a shrub, in which form it seldom exceeds 10 or 12 feet in height. After the third or fourth year the tips of the branches and the trunk commence to climb upon adjacent trees and shrubs, often to a height of 40 feet. One specimen observed by the writer in the forest at Fortaleza, on the outskirts of Yurimaguas, measured 60 feet in length. Although numerous specimens were seen both in the lowlands and highlands, neither the wild nor the cultivated plants were found in flower or in fruit. This may be accounted for partly by the fact that the roots are in such demand by the natives that the plants are seldom allowed to attain the age of more than 5 or 6 years. It has been suggested that the intensive cultivation of the species over a long period of time may be responsible for the loss of the flowering habit. It is also reasonable to assume that the shrub bears flowers only at infrequent intervals.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup> Journ. Wash. Acad. Sc. Vol. 20, No. 5, 74-81, Mar. 4, 1930.

<sup>3</sup> In this connection it is interesting to note that on April 4, 1933, the President of Peru signed a decree declaring the cultivation and industrial utilization of all plants belonging to the genera *Lonchocarpus*, *Tephrosia* or *Cracca*, *Apurimacia*, *Jaquinia*, and *Serjania*, called indiscriminately "cube" and "barbasco" in the vernacular, to be of public benefit, and forbidding the export of seeds, cuttings, or fresh roots of any of these genera.—EDITOR.



## USES

The roots, measuring in old plants up to 10 feet or more in length contain a large quantity of milky latex of a highly poisonous nature. Its use as a fish poison is prohibited by law, but in the little-known forest regions, far removed from administrative authorities, it has been found difficult to eradicate this primitive custom.

The manner in which the poison is employed is unique and effective. Roots of plants at least 3 or 4 years old are utilized. These may be dug up and ground to a pulp, resembling cream in appearance and consistency. Another method is to cut the roots into small pieces



Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip.

FISHING WITH BARBASCO IN A PERUVIAN STREAM.

The roots of the plant are ground or sometimes mashed with water in the bottom of a canoe. After the selection of the fishing ground, preferably a lagoon with little or no current in order to obviate the necessity of constructing a weir, the mixture is thrown into the water. The fish, quickly stupefied or poisoned, are then easily speared or netted.

with a bushknife and place them in the canoes. The roots are then covered with water and the fishermen stamp on the mixture with their feet. After this a small lagoon is selected, or a weir, made of straight stakes and palm leaves, may be built across a stream with little or no current, to form a pool. With a calabash the freshly pounded roots are thrown into the water, which immediately becomes of a milky whiteness. The poisoning or stupefying effect upon the fish, brought about by the toxic ingredient present in the latex, soon becomes apparent. It works almost instantaneously on the smaller ones; the larger fish frequently jump out of the water, and the natives secure them

in outspread palm leaves. Sometimes the dead fish drop into a net, spread beside the dam, or the fishermen simply spear them when they are sufficiently narcotized. Dead fish will be found floating in the vicinity several hours after the water has been poisoned. Evidently *Barbasco* has no deleterious effect upon the meat, and the natives handle it without fear of injury to wounds or abrasions. In the highlands the latex is also employed as a wash to kill ticks on cattle.

#### PROPERTIES

For several years an intensive search has been conducted for new insecticides of plant origin. McIndoo and Sievers (U.S. Dept. Agr. Dept. Bul. 1201, p. 54, Mar. 19, 1924) state that of 260 specimens of plants investigated for this purpose "only about 5 percent furnish material for efficient insecticides, and of these only about half may be regarded as satisfactorily efficient. The latter included three species of *Chrysanthemum* (*cinerariaefolium*, *coccineum*, and *marschallii*), used for making pyrethrum or insect powder; two species of *Derris* (*elliptica* and *uliginosa*); and a Peruvian plant known locally as *cube*. The extracts of these, combined with soap, proved to be promising contact insecticides . . ." It appears that the use of *Barbasco*, or *Cube*, as a vermifuge and insecticide has been registered in the United States Patent Office (U.S. No. 1621240).

Howard A. Jones, Bureau of Chemistry and Soils, United States Department of Agriculture, states:<sup>4</sup> "Rotenone, a constituent of derris root (*Deguelia* sp.) and of cube root (*Lonchocarpus nicou*), has recently come into prominence as an insecticide of considerable value . . . Rotenone has been previously reported as occurring in species of both of these genera of plants."

He notes that as early as 1895 Geoffroy, using a petroleum ether extraction method, reported the rotenone content of *Lochocarpus nicou* from French Guiana as 2 to 2.5 percent.

A sample of *L. nicou*, collected by the writer on the Marshall Field Botanical Expedition to northeastern Peru in 1929-30, was compared by Jones with other specimens of *Barbasco* roots and found to be identical in histological elements. Using his carbon tetrachloride method of extraction, he found that the rotenone content of air-dried material of *Barbasco* submitted by Field Museum was 6.8 percent and total extract 20 percent.

In conclusion, he reports that of 23 samples of *Cube* or *Barbasco* root tested the rotenone content ranged from less than 1 to about 11 percent, whereas that of 45 samples of *Derris* root ranged from none to about 7 percent. The average of 22 samples of *Barbasco* root analyzed by the carbon tetrachloride method was 5.4 percent rotenone, and the average for 31 samples of *Derris* root was 2.5 percent.

<sup>4</sup> Journ. Wash. Acad. Sci. Vol. 23, No. 1, p. 36-45, Jan. 15, 1933.

Other chemists have found that rotenone is a white crystalline compound having the formula  $C_{23}H_{22}O_6$ . It is insoluble in water, but soluble in chloroform, alcohol, and other organic solvents. Rotenone is extremely toxic to fish; 1 part in 20,000,000 parts of water was sufficient to kill goldfish in 3 hours. It is also highly poisonous to insects and is effective both as a contact and as a stomach insecticide. Apparently, judging from many investigations, it has no effect on human beings either when taken by mouth, dusting, or intravenous injections.

These results indicate the suitability of *Barbasco* root as a source of this valuable insecticidal principle<sup>5</sup> and the desirability of more extensive cultivation of the species.

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## A BRIDGE OF FLOWERS

By CLARISSA GREENE

MORE than 100 varieties of orchids from Latin American countries graced the Third International Tropical Flower Show held recently in the Miami Beach Garden Theater. This exhibition, which has taken its place among the great exhibitions of the horticultural world, is known as a gesture of friendship between nations and has been developed under the direction and through the untiring efforts of its founder-president, Mrs. J. Julien Southerland, whose inspiration it was. This bond between the Americas was strengthened in 1933 by her air journey of more than 20,000 miles to 15 countries, where she spent over 2 months calling upon Government officials as well as individual and commercial growers of orchids. Each country visited responded by sending orchids to the show in generous numbers.

The display of more than 500 orchids was considered a wonderful demonstration of the value of the friendships created through Mrs. Southerland's air trip. The giant clippers of the Pan American Airways, Inc., were laden to capacity by their precious cargo of orchids from jungle trail, mountain height, and river valley. The flowers had first been carried by hand, on horseback, by oxcart, wagon, or automobile until they reached the airport, where they were embarked to take their place on the throne prepared for their reign.

Thirty-four cases arrived on planes the night before the opening of the show. Willing hands toiled until 2 o'clock in the morning,

<sup>5</sup> See "In place of arsenic", by J. Sidney Cates, in "The Country Gentleman", Philadelphia, March 1933.

Pure rotenone and preparations containing it are now manufactured on a commercial scale; they come both in sprays for household and horticultural use, and in powder for dusting.—EDITOR.



giving the flowers a drink of fresh water, labeling tubes with the name and address of the exhibitor and the variety of orchid. Many of the blooms had been en route for more than a week, but, belying their apparently fragile texture, they held up remarkably during the 5 days of the show. There were orchids from the headwaters of the Orinoco and Amazon, from the valleys of the Peruvian and Chilean Andes, from the rain forests of Panama, and from the highlands of Mexico and Central America. "Some were so rare that they are seen only by hunters who dare the jungles; there were bloodthirsty orchids which bait and trap insects." The *Coryanthes Hunteriana*, or honey-bucket, was thus described by an exhibitor, Mrs. M. A. Purdom of Panama. She wrote:



Courtesy of Mrs. J. Julien Southerland.

DISPLAY OF ORCHIDS AT THE THIRD INTERNATIONAL TROPICAL FLOWER SHOW.

Please tell me whether the *coryanthes* opened. The buds should hang down. This is unique among all orchids. When the bud has matured, on a cloudless morning at 6 o'clock, it trembles—a crack opens opposite the stem—more trembling—a noise like tearing paper—a sudden jerk—the crack widens—something pushes from within—the wings fly wide open—a splash—a tiny stream—a blossom is born. A little pool of honey is below the blossom. This spill is caused by the final violent jerk of unfolding sepals and petals. During 7 or 8 days the honey constantly drips from two tiny horns into the honey bucket, and the ants, bees, and butterflies feast at this free-lunch counter. Suddenly the honey stops dripping and the blossom becomes a little yellow rag.

Glass tubes and rubber caps had been distributed by Mrs. Southerland to those who contemplated sending orchids to the show. Flower stems were slipped through the hole in the rubber cap, the tube filled with water and the stem immersed therein as the tiny rubber cap was pulled tightly down over the mouth of the tube so that none of the



fluid should be spilled en route to stain the ethereal beauty of the flowers. They were the center of attraction throughout the exhibition; thousands of visitors filed past to pay tribute to their loveliness.

The Garden Theater proved ideal for the show. Landscape architects and commercial and individual growers combined forces to transform the huge structure into a setting worthy the queenly orchids. A Mexican plaza, terraced Italian gardens, a waterfall, Japanese and rock gardens and a lily pool had appeared as if by magic. Hundreds of exhibitors brought their choicest blossoms of many kinds to weave a tapestry of color for the walls and to spread a carpet of rainbow hues from which there rose to vaulted dome wave on wave of perfume, rare incense to an international occasion. One display "looked like a bit of outdoors miraculously moved inside with its full-grown coconut palms and a tall tree bearing several specimens of orchids."

This international show was made possible through the cooperation of the Pan American Union, the Pan American Society of New York, the Government of the United States, the Governments of the Republics to the south of us, their ambassadors and ministers at Washington, and the American diplomatic missions in those countries.

Its scope was broadened this year to include practically all the Western Hemisphere through the active participation not only of the Latin American Republics but of nearly all the States of the Union, which sent flowers for exhibition and delegates to the National Convention of Garden Clubs which met coincidentally with the show. This was a powerful factor in strengthening the supports of the pillars of friendship in the "bridge of flowers" between the Americas, which reached from Miami Beach to the 20 American sister countries.

Heading the judges' committee was Mr. W. H. Webster, of the New York Botanical Gardens, who declared that having seen all of the major flower shows for the past 10 years, he found this one the "most presentable" and one of the loveliest he had ever seen.

A rare honor was accorded the exhibition this year through the generosity of four leading horticultural societies, which permitted the show to award their medals to outstanding South American orchid displays. The medal of the Pennsylvania Horticultural Society, the oldest of such groups in America, went to the Venezuelan Government, the first time such an award has been made outside the United States. Particularly fitting was the award of the medal of the Garden Club of America, largely a women's organization, to Señora Doña Marta de Ubico, wife of the Guatemalan President, for her display of more than 100 blooms, the largest and most varied collection exhibited. The American Orchid Society medal went to W. H. Lankaster, of San José, for his exhibit of orchids from the forests of Costa Rica, while the medal of the Horticultural Society of

New York, Inc., was warded to Mrs. M. A. Purdom, of Panama, whose collection of Canal Zone orchids has been featured at each of the preceding shows.

A world-wide radio broadcast carried the opening program to listeners in both Americas. Invited to participate in the program were: Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, who spoke from Washington; Mr. John L. Merrill, President of the Pan American Society of New York; Mrs. Frederick R. Kellogg, President of the National Council of Federated Garden Clubs, who with Mrs. Southerland and the United States Army band, playing Latin American music arranged by Mr. Franklin Adams, Counselor of the Pan American Union, presented a program which has long brought echoes to the office of the Flower Show. Garden club members in the Americas were assembled in a chain of luncheons and teas that featured Latin American menus to listen to this program.

To build for the future the children of high schools of the chief cities of Florida, who had been given a background of Pan Americanism, participated in a poster contest, the winning posters being displayed at the show. They were judged and cash awards made by Mrs. Woodrow Wilson, Mrs. Kellogg, and members of her official family.

Many newspapers throughout the Americas commented on this felicitous event. In closing, we may quote part of an editorial from the New York *Herald-Tribune*:

How should airplants travel if not by air? . . . Every republic of the South cooperates with ours in this orchidaceous event, but not until air traffic became frequent could it be held, for delicate tropical plants do not well endure a long sea voyage, especially after they have traveled for days in panniers to reach the coast from the wild interior. . . .

Central and South America take just pride in these exquisite or fantastic contributions. The airways transport them gratis. The United States lifts its embargo to permit the entry of such elegant immigrants. . . .

It is pleasant to think of the Western World uniting in contemplation of orchids. These fragile plants, which are distributed over the whole globe, except for the polar regions and deserts—even the sub-Arctic zones—are at their choicest in tropical America and somehow, sponsors of the show remark, “symbolize the aristocratic culture of Latin lands.” But their character has long been done an injustice because of the mistaken popular impression that they are parasites. Orchids grow both in earth and air, rising often from dead trunks or bare rocks, and true parasites are unknown among them. Most of these at Miami will be epiphytes, born of and borne by air, and so “the flying orchid” is quite properly the theme of friendly and poetical international exchanges.

# THE PLAINS OF HAITI<sup>1</sup>

By LUC DORSINVILLE

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THE plains of the Republic of Haiti are found not only between the principal mountain ranges and the sea, but also between the mountains. For that reason the country cannot be divided naturally into mountainous and flat regions. The composition of the campestral soil is such that often only irrigation is needed to reveal its extraordinary fertility.

There are in Haiti eight plains of more than 25,000 acres each. The largest of these is the Central Plain, containing 544,000 acres; it runs from east to west between the Massif du Nord and the Montagnes Noires and from north to southeast between St. Raphael and Belladère. The miocene rocks (sandstone, limestone, and chalk) on which it is based are, in many places, buried under a thick alluvial stratum which has a tendency to slope toward the southwest.

The chief rivers watering the Central Plain are the Guayamouc on the northwest and the Macasia (or Marcassia) on the southeast. There are also on the sides of the surrounding mountains other streams of average size, most of which are tributaries of these two. The annual mean rainfall on the plain is 29.52 inches.

The Central Plain is, unfortunately, of little productive benefit to the nation, because it consists largely of savannas entirely covered with a grass locally known as *Madame Michel*.

Next in size is Artibonite Plain, whose 200,000 acres, situated along the Artibonite and Estère Rivers, form a sort of wedge between the Montagnes Noires and the Chaîne des Matheux. The plain is relatively flat, although there are hills to the west and north. At its greatest width it forms a true delta between the mouth of the Artibonite River (where this flows into the Gulf of Gonaïves) and the Estère River. The soil is composed of "matter from the different formations bordering the courses of the Artibonite River and its tributaries." This includes limestone mixed with basalt, schist, and sand from the interior of the island, which has been washed away by the waters through the periods of the geological formation of the soil. The mean rainfall is from 23.62 to 47.24 inches; the average temperature is 27.3° C. or 81° F.

<sup>1</sup> See "The Rivers of Haiti," by the same author, in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, March 1932.—EDITOR.



The products of this plain are cotton, rice, sugarcane, bananas, peas, maize, and millet.

Third in area is the Cul-de-Sac Plain, of 90,200 acres. It is part of a remarkable depression which stretches across the entire island, from the harbor of Port-au-Prince to the Bay of Neiba, in the Dominican Republic. Bounded on the north by the Trou d'Eau Mountains and on the south by the Massif de la Selle, it is "an immense basin covered with stratified alluvium", rectangular in form, a little wider at the east than at the southeast. In the east and northeast are the Lakes of Saumâtre and Trou-Caïman.

The principal watercourses which irrigate this plain are the Cul-de-Sac, or Grise, and the Blanche Rivers, both of which have their



OLD FRENCH DAM BUILT IN 1740 ON TORCEL RIVER.

sources in the Massif de la Selle and water the northwestern and western parts of the Cul-de-Sac, or about one third of the plain. The other two thirds still need only the benefits of irrigation to become extremely productive. Although the annual mean rainfall varies from 31.49 to 39.37 inches, the nonirrigated parts of the Cul-de-Sac are not greatly benefited because of the rapid evaporation, due to the high mean temperature of the region—24.5° C. or 76° F.

Besides the two rivers just cited, other watercourses of less importance are to be found on the Cul-de-Sac Plain: in the southeast, the Creuse River, partly fed by the Despuzeaux and Palmistes-Clares Springs; in the northeast, the Maneville and Gloire Springs flowing into Lake Saumâtre; on the north, the Digue Spring, near Chomazeau; and on the west, the Orangers, Savoye, and Boule Brooks.



The Cul-de-Sac is the best irrigated plain in the Republic. It was in 1730 that the French colonists first diverted water from the Grise River. A dam was erected shortly thereafter at the place where the construction of a general reservoir for the distribution of water was carried on from 1773 to 1787. The Blanche River was tapped in 1741, three years later than the Creuse. Under the stratified alluvial deposits of this plain there is also an abundant subterranean supply of water. Page 1

Charcoal, sugarcane, syrop, *tafia* (a form of spirits made from molasses), bananas, potatoes, manioc, and granulated sugar are the chief products of the Cul-de-Sac.



MOMANCE DIVERSION DAM.

Lower sluice way of the dam which was completed in March 1925.

Arbre or Port-à-Piment du Nord Plain contains 64,300 acres and lies in the Nord-Ouest Department, to the south and west of the Boynes Hot Springs. The annual mean rainfall in this plain is 19.685 inches, and all the streams which rise on the surrounding mountains are absorbed in the ground at the edge. Two or three salt pools, which often dry up in the course of the year, are the ordinary means whereby the inhabitants can provide water for their animals or for themselves. In a word, the Arbre Plain is the most arid in the Republic, and the only irrigation system which has been introduced there is primitive.

Cotton, millet, maize, and sometimes legumes, however, are produced on this plain which, since it is composed of a fine alluvial

layer over Miocene formations—limestone, sandstone, and chalk—would certainly prove to have subterranean potable water if artesian wells were sunk.

The North Plain lies along the northern coast, from the Bay of Acul on the west to the boundary of the Dominican Republic on the east, and its 54,400 acres slope gently to the sea from an altitude of from 165 to 330 feet above sea level. Between Acul Bay and Cap Haïtien the plain is separated from the sea by cliffs. In addition to an annual mean rainfall of 59.055 inches, the plain is crossed by many streams or rivers flowing from the surrounding mountains. Among these the Massacre, Marion, Trou, and Tossé Rivers, the Grande Rivière du Nord, and Haut du Cap should be mentioned. Agriculture has consistently developed on the North Plain without



Courtesy of Luc Dorsinville.

SISAL PLANTATION, NORTH PLAIN.

the necessity of using their waters for irrigation. Even during the French colonial period it was not a general practice to tap these streams for irrigation purposes. The most important projects which were executed in this region during colonial times were those near the village of La Tannerie, which date from 1786. In every epoch the North Plain has been considered very fertile, especially in the vicinity of Limonade and Quartier Morin, where the most productive agricultural lands are to be found. The other regions, receiving less water either from rain or from surface drainage, offer a less luxuriant vegetation.

The Cayes-Torbeck Plain contains 49,400 acres. It is the great southern coastal plain, lying in the Department of the Sud, and dominated on the north and northwest by the Massif de la Hotte.

It is covered with an alluvial layer deposited by the streams which run from northwest to southeast, the most important of which is the Ravine du Sud. Other watercourses deserving of mention are the Ilet River on the east and the Torbeck and Acul Rivers on the west. But these rivers, whose waters have been diverted by irrigation canals (the most important of which is the Avezac Canal at Camp Perrin) often do not reach the sea during droughts. The Cayes Plain, whose annual rainfall is frequently over 82.677 inches, is also very fertile; irrigation is not really necessary there except on the highlands. The first irrigation works were begun in 1761 by French colonists; they have always been kept up by the Haitians.

The Cayes Plain, formerly flourishing, is unfortunately impoverished today by the lack of consistent agricultural effort on the part of its inhabitants and by the exodus of many thousand laborers who, attracted by high wages, have been lured to neighboring foreign countries. At present it produces only sugarcane, cotton, millet, maize, and tobacco.

The Grand' Anse or Jérémie Plain, covering 38,300 acres, is the great northwestern plain of the southern peninsula. It is watered by the Grand' Anse or Jérémie, the Guinaudée, and the Voldroque Rivers, and, at the extreme east, by the Roseaux. On the plateaus and elevated regions, cacao is grown, while in the lower sections sugarcane, cotton, millet, and maize are produced.

The Léogane Plain contains 25,900 acres and presents almost the same aspect as the northwestern third of the Cul-de-Sac. Rectangular in form, 7.5 miles from east to west and 6 miles wide, it is composed of soil formed by the deposits of the Momance River on the east and the Citronniers on the west. Sugarcane, *tafia*, bananas, and manioc are the principal products of this plain.

In addition to these eight main plains, the Republic of Haiti boasts of 15 others containing 2,000 or more acres. These are the Plains of Cavaillon, 2,000 acres; Marigot, 3,000; St. Marc, 5,000; Des Irois, 6,200; Petit Goave, 7,400; Abricots, 7,400; Bombardopolis, 8,600; Aquin, 9,900; Miragoane, 11,000; Font des Nègres, 13,600; Baradères 13,600; Gonaïves, 14,800; Limbé, 16,000; Arcahaie, 24,700; and the Straits, on the northern part of Gonave Island, 24,700. The Straits Plain is still little known, and, although at present it is heavily wooded it could easily be irrigated by the nearby "Great Spring" and "Little Spring", whose waters unfortunately are lost among rugged rocks before they can reach the sea.

Around the cities or villages of Anses-à-Pibres, Coteaux, St. Louis du Sud, Port-Salut, Jean-Rabel, Mont-Rouis, Grand-Goâve, Côtes-de-Fer, Jacmel, Cayes-Jacmel, Tiburon, Bainet, Anglais, Port-à-Piment du Sud, Saltron, Grand Gosier, Asile, and Aquin are other still smaller plains, whose area varies from 1,000 to 1,500 acres.





Courtesy of the Pullman Co.

# RECEPTION AND DINING CARS OF THE MEXICAN PRESIDENT'S PRIVATE TRAIN.

In one of the cars of this train, which is now on exhibition at the Century of Progress Exposition in Chicago, is the famous treasure discovered at Oaxaca by Dr. Alfonso Caso and for the first time displayed outside Mexico.





## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD

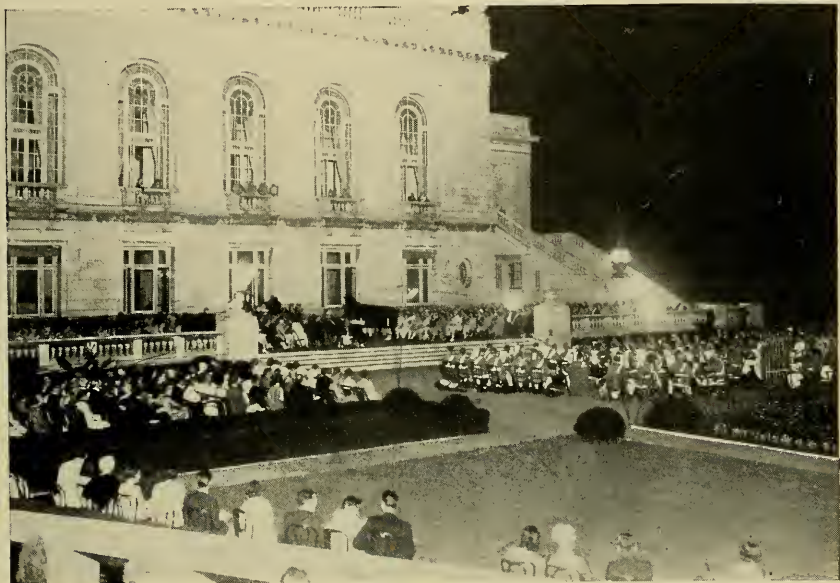
*Luncheon to the Honorable Francis White.*—On June 28, 1933, the members of the Governing Board gave a luncheon in honor of the Honorable Francis White, Assistant Secretary of State, who has recently been appointed Minister of the United States to Czechoslovakia.

Dr. Jacobo Varela, Minister of Uruguay, Acting Chairman of the Board, spoke on behalf of his colleagues. In paying tribute to Mr. White's accomplishments during his many years in the diplomatic service, Dr. Varela said: "Profound knowledge of our common problems, remarkable devotion, perfect courtesy, and ability to bring a harmonious solution out of the inevitable divergence of ideas have enabled Mr. White to sustain the interests of his country without prejudice to those of other nations and to keep the confidence and consideration of their representatives."

In acknowledging the honor paid by the members of the Governing Board, Mr. White said: "I have served in the Department of State a little more than 11 years, except for a brief period in Spain, and in all those years I have had the great privilege of dealing with questions that interest the other countries of America and my own. For me the relations that exist between our American nations are the most interesting in the world. On the basis of a proper understanding between all the countries of America, the relations between them will have much to do with the future of the world."

*Concerts of Latin American music.*—The sixty-sixth and sixty-seventh concerts of Latin American music sponsored by the Pan American Union were given on the esplanade on June 7 and July 5, by the United States Marine and Army Bands, respectively. On both occasions a large and distinguished audience was present, enjoying both the exotic melodies of the Americas and the beauty of the moonlit gardens. Continuing the tradition of introducing Latin

American music to the American public, several pieces had their premiere here; others were presented for the first time in the United States. The soloists, Ortiz Tirado, tenor, of Mexico, and Leopoldo Gutiérrez, baritone, of Chile, famous vocalists who were generous with their encores, added greatly to the pleasure of the auditors. The concerts were broadcast in the United States and sent over a short wave channel from Schenectady to be rebroadcast by local stations throughout the Americas. One hour of each concert was amplified and broadcast at the Century of Progress Exposition in Chicago so that every one there could enjoy it.



CONCERT ON THE ESPLANADE OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.

These open air concerts have proved a delightful addition to the social life of the Capital during the summer months, and are attended by large and appreciative audiences.

#### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*Pedro Denegri collection.*—The National Library of Argentina has been given the Pedro Denegri collection of rare and beautiful editions of the French classics, many of which are first editions. This library, which was acquired by Señor Denegri during his lifetime, contains 4,000 volumes and has been placed in a special "Pedro Denegri Room."

*Mexican Library Association.*—In May of this year the Mexican Library Association was inaugurated. The association, composed of librarians who are connected with an officially recognized library or engaged in closely related work, is dedicated to the improvement of libraries and to the intellectual and professional development of

librarians. The organization plans to hold monthly meetings and to publish a magazine devoted to library science and containing articles contributed by members of the society.

*Bibliography reproduced.*—*El libro y el pueblo*, the monthly magazine published by the Ministry of Education of Mexico, in the issue for May 1933 published in full the Mexican section of *Selected list of recent books, in English, on Latin America*, Bibliographic series no. 4, third edition, compiled in the Library of the Pan American Union.

*Hispanic American Seminar.*—The seminar of Hispanic American affairs at George Washington University this summer is devoted to problems in the Caribbean. There will be 29 lectures given by noted historians in this field. Each lecturer has compiled an extensive and comprehensive bibliography on his special topic, several of which include references to Spanish works. Dr. A. Curtis Wilgus is again in charge of the seminar.

*Social service library.*—A resolution of the Ministry of Foreign Relations and Religion of the Argentine Republic dated March 28, 1933, creates a specialized library of social service works to be administered by the General Bureau of Subsidies. The library will be composed of laws, reports, and volumes or pamphlets relating to social service and welfare work both in Argentina and in foreign countries. The methods of administration and a system of exchanges of duplicate works have been approved. The library will be administered as a reference library for consultation by the employees of the Ministry, and for research.

*New books.*—The following list has been compiled from the books which have been received recently in the library:

*Tildes jurídicas* [por] Tomás Liscano. Caracas, Editorial Sur-Americano, 1932. 284 p. 23½ cm.

*Recordación Florida*, discurso historia y demostración natural, material, militar y política del reyno de Guatemala, escribela el cronista del mismo reyno capitán D. Francisco Antonio de Fuentes y Guzmán. . . . Edición conforme al código del siglo xvii, que original se conserva en el archivo de la municipalidad de Guatemala. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1932-33. 2 v. 26½ cm. (Biblioteca "Goathemala" de la Sociedad de geografía e historia, dirigida por el Licenciado J. Antonio Villacorta C., volumen vi-vii.)

*La personalidad internacional de Panamá*, tesis presentada a consideración de la Facultad de derecho de Madrid, por Publio A. Vásquez Hernández. . . . Madrid, Imprenta de A. Marzo [n.d.] 155 p. 24½ cm.

*Diccionario enciclopédico abreviado*, versiones de la mayoría de las voces en francés, italiano, inglés y alemán. . . . Madrid, Espasa-Calpe, s.a. [c1932] 3 v. 25½ cm.

*Historia general de las Indias occidentales, y particular de la gobernación de Chiapa y Guatemala*, escribese juntamente los principios de la religión de nuestro glorioso Padre Santo Domingo y de las demás religiones; al Conde de la Gomera del consejo del Rey, nuestro señor, su presidente, y capitán general; por el presentado Fray Antonio de Remesal. . . . 2.<sup>a</sup> edición. Guatemala [Tipografía



nacional] 1932. v. 1. 26½ cm. (Biblioteca "Goathemala" de la Sociedad de geografía e historia, dirigida por el Licenciado J. Antonio Villacorta C., volumen iv.)

*Bolívar entre dos Américas 1830-1930* [por] Esteban Roldán Oliarte. San José, Costa Rica, Editorial Bolívar, 1931. 389 p. 23 cm.

*Los crepúsculos de Sidón* [por] Agustín Tijerino R. Primera edición. Madrid, Javier Morata, 1932. 206 p. 19½ cm.

*Democracia representativa do voto e de modo de votar*, por J. F. de Assis Brasil. 4ª edição. . . . Rio de Janeiro, 1931. 422 p. 23 cm.

*The dauntless Libertador, Simón Bolívar*, by Phyllis Marschall and John Crane; illustrated by Edward Toledano. New York, The Century co. [c1933] 306 p. 21 cm.

*New magazines.*—New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*Barómetro económico*; boletín semanal de la Dirección general de estadística. Santiago de Chile, 1932. Año 1, n.º 1, agosto 17 de 1932. 4 p. tables, diagrs. 16½ x 9½ cm. Weekly. Address: Dirección general de estadística, Casilla 1317, Santiago de Chile.

*Revista ideológica*, Universidad del Cauca; órgano del movimiento ideológico occidental universitario. Popayán, Imprenta del Departamento del Cauca, 1933. Año 1, abril, 1933. 32 p. illus. 24 x 16½ cm. Editor: Antonio García. Monthly. Address: Universidad del Cauca, Popayán, República de Colombia.

*Revista económica nacional "Ferretería."* Habana, 1933. No. 11, año 1, abril 1933. 40 p. illus., ports. 31 x 24 cm. Editor: Juan Morriña González. Monthly. Address: Apartado 573, Habana, Cuba.

*Boletín de la Cámara de comercio.* Pasto, Colombia, 1933. Número 20, abril 1933. 12 p. 24 x 17 cm. Editor: Julio Cesar Enríquez. Address: Boletín de la Cámara de comercio, Pasto, República de Colombia.

*Boletín de la Junta auxiliar jalisciense de la Sociedad mexicana de geografía y estadística.* Guadalajara, 1933. No. 1, 18 de febrero de 1933. 18 p. 22½ x 16 cm. Bimonthly. Address: Apartado postal núm. 362, Guadalajara, Jalisco, México.

*Boletín agrícola*, publicado por la Dirección de industrias y fomento agrícola, Ministerio de industrias y obras públicas, Mendoza, República Argentina. Año 1, núm. 5, mayo 1933. 54 p. illus. 26 x 18 cm. Editor: Sr. Eliseo Anzorena. Monthly. Address: San Martín 1636, Mendoza, República Argentina.

*Revista javeriana*; órgano de la Facultad de ciencias económicas y jurídicas. Bogotá, 1933. Año 1, núm. 1, febrero 1933. 32 p. plates, ports. 24½ x 17 cm. Editor: P. Félix Restrepo. Quarterly. Address: Universidad Javeriana, Bogotá, República de Colombia.

*Revista de economía y estadística* de la Secretaría de la economía nacional. México, D. F., 1933. Vol. I, núm. 1, mayo de 1933. 48 p. tables, diagrs. 31 x 24 cm. Editor: Eduardo Hornedo. Monthly. Address: Secretaría de la economía nacional, Av. República Argentina n.º 12, México, D. F.

*Revista pedagógica*; órgano de la Sociedad venezolana de maestros de instrucción primaria. Caracas, Venezuela, 1933. Año 1, meses 3 y 4, abril y mayo 1933. p. 111-166. 22 x 15½ cm. Monthly. Address: Cuartel viejo a Pineda núm. 34, Caracas, Venezuela.

*Boletín del Instituto nacional "Mejía."* Quito, Ecuador, 1933. Año 1º, n.º 1º, marzo 1933. 102 p. illus., plates. 25 x 17 cm. Monthly. Address: Apartado 52, Quito, Ecuador.



*Estudos juridicos e sociaes.* Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Vol. I, n<sup>o</sup>. 1, abril 1933. 141 p. 23½ x 17 cm. Quarterly. Address: Praça Floriano, 39, 3<sup>o</sup>., sala 14, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

*Revista del Departamento de agricultura;* órgano del Departamento de agricultura, comercio e industrias. Quito, Ecuador, 1933. Año I, n<sup>o</sup>. 1, mayo de 1933. 33 p. illus., port. 25½ x 18 cm. Monthly. Address: Revista de agricultura, Dirección general de agricultura, Quito, Ecuador.

*Musical;* revista mensual ilustrada dedicada a estimular al amateur musical. Lima, 1933. Núm. 1, abril 15 de 1933. 16 p. illus., ports. 34 x 21½ cm. Editor: L. A. Valderrama Baca. Monthly. Address: Apartado 1561, Lima, Perú.

*O Campo;* revista mensal ilustrada—lavoura, criação, industria y commercio. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Anno iv, n<sup>o</sup>. 2, 1933. 80 p. illus., tables. 32½ x 23½ cm. Editor: Dr. Benedicto Raymundo da Silva. Monthly. Address: O Campo sociedade ltda., Avenida Rio Branco, 177, 3<sup>o</sup> Andar, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

*Nariño;* gaceta departamental. Pasto, 1933. Año xxiv, número 1547, 25 de febrero de 1933. p. [57]–64. 34½ x 25 cm. Address: Imprenta del Departamento, Pasto, Nariño, República de Colombia.

*La Semana;* revista nacional ilustrada. La Paz, 1933. Año 1, núm. 26, abril 2 de 1933. [30] p. illus., ports. 35½ x 26 cm. Editor: Francisco Villarejos. Weekly. Address: La Semana, La Paz, Bolivia.

*Revista del Club Unión.* Barquisimeto, 1933. Número 1<sup>o</sup>, 30 de abril de 1933. [40] p. illus., ports. 31½ x 23½ cm. Editor: Dr. Ambrosio Perera. Monthly. Address: Revista del Club Unión, Barquisimeto, Estado Lara, Venezuela.

*Ilustración nariñense.* Pasto, 1933. Serie iv, n<sup>o</sup>. 48, febrero de 1933. 22 p. illus., ports. 34 x 24½ cm. Editor: Rafael Delgado Ch. Monthly. Address: Ilustración nariñense, Pasto, Nariño, República de Colombia.



# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

## TREATIES

*United States—Panama.*—Ratifications of the convention of March 14, 1932, between the United States and Panama modifying the convention between the two countries of June 6, 1924, for the prevention of smuggling of intoxicating liquors and regulating the transit through the territory of the Canal Zone of alcoholic liquors from one point in the Republic of Panama to another point in that republic, were exchanged at the city of Panama on March 25, 1933.

Under this convention the transit of alcoholic liquor through the Panama Canal Zone under seal and certificate of the Panamanian authorities is permitted.

*Argentina—Chile.*—On June 3, 1933, a commercial treaty between Argentina and Chile was signed in Buenos Aires by representatives of the two nations after several months of negotiations. On November 12, 1932, a *modus vivendi*, effective for six months, was concluded between the two countries; on February 1–2, 1933, the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of Argentina and Chile met in Mendoza, Argentina, and one of the conclusions reached was the resolution “to sign the act dealing with the commercial *modus vivendi* now in force between the two countries, in accordance with the terms of the notes exchanged on the subject on this date; and to initiate within one month the study by a mixed commission of the bases of a permanent treaty of commerce which will satisfy the reciprocal interests of the two countries” (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, March and May 1933). The mixed commission met in Santiago, Chile, and on March signed resolutions upon which a commercial treaty could be based. On May 13 delegates of the two countries began deliberations in Buenos Aires, the result of which was the commercial treaty signed on June 3.

By the terms of this treaty each country grants the other certain specified tariff concessions, which may be revised upon three months’ notice by either party at the end of one year. It is also agreed to maintain in both countries the present ratio between paper money and gold; to reestablish railway communications, should they be stopped; to promote the construction of transandine railways by way of Socompa and Loquimay; to facilitate the movement of merchandise in transit between the two countries; to arrange a plan of sanitary inspection for plants and animals; to declare smuggling an “international crime”; to establish international drawback certificates; to

sign a convention on customs regulations and the international transportation of passengers, baggage, and freight; and to grant reciprocity in consular exemptions, immunity, and privileges. The treaty is to be effective for three years, subject to renewal for successive periods of three years; it is also subject to ratification by the congresses of the respective countries. Ratifications will be exchanged in Santiago.

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## NECROLOGY

*Hipólito Irigoyen.*—On July 3, 1933, Hipólito Irigoyen, former President of ARGENTINA, died in Buenos Aires a few days before his eighty-first birthday. The first president elected under the reformed electoral law, which provided secret, obligatory, and universal suffrage, Doctor Irigoyen was also the first member of the Radical Party to hold that office. His first administration (1916–1922) was marked by his strongly nationalistic views and his disregard of popular opinion; his sincerity and integrity more than counterbalanced unfavorable criticism. Although a man of means, his personal life was one of Spartan simplicity; his elevation to the presidency caused no change in his habits. He refused to live in the presidential palace, and continued his practice of giving to charity his income from the Government. He began his second term of office (in 1928, for the Constitution of Argentina forbids a president to succeed himself) amid great popular acclaim, but his autocratic handling of government problems led to such widespread dissatisfaction that he was deposed on September 5, 1930. At the time of his death he had been reinstated in public esteem, and his passing was universally mourned by his countrymen.

*Juliano Moreira.*—The brilliant BRAZILIAN scientist Juliano Moreira died on May 3, 1933. For nearly 40 years he had practiced medicine, specializing in psychiatry; from 1903 to 1930 he was director of the National Hospital for the Insane. Doctor Moreira was a member of learned societies in England, France, Germany, and the United States, and had represented his country at many medical congresses in Europe. He was a founder not only of the Society of Medicine and Surgery and of the Society of Legal Medicine of Bahia, but also of the Brazilian Archives of Psychiatry, Neurology, and Legal Medicine and of the Brazilian Archives of Medicine. In recent years he had traveled in the United States and in Japan, and in both countries he was honored by scientific societies.

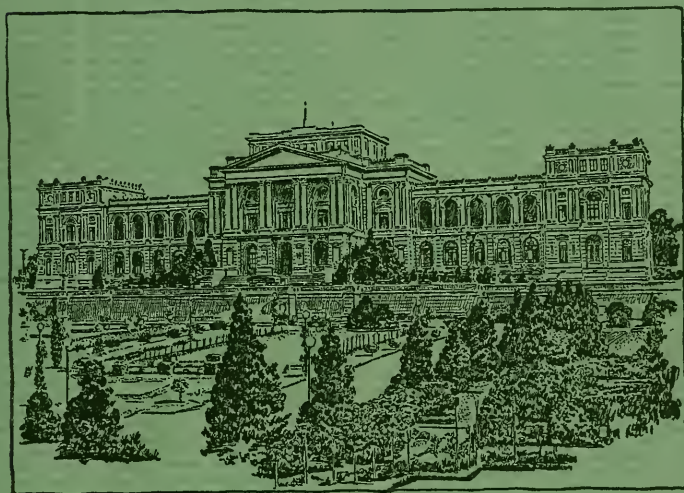




ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA

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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



THE YPIRANGA MUSEUM, SÃO PAULO, BRAZIL

THE INDEPENDENCE OF BRAZIL  
SEPTEMBER 7, 1822

SEPTEMBER

1933

MEXICO NICARAGUA PANAMA PARAGUAY PERU ECUADOR ESTADOS UNIDOS VENEZUELA



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UNION OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS



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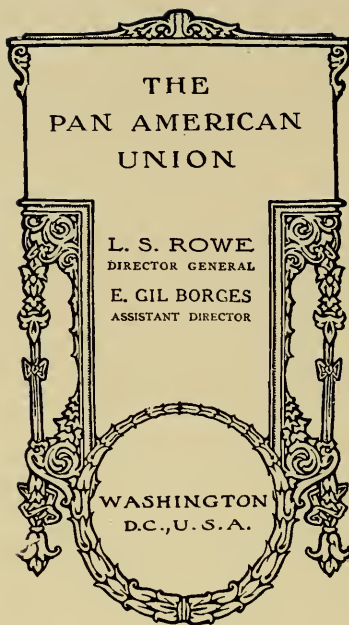
# PAN AMERICAN UNION

SEPTEMBER

1933



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#### SUBSCRIPTION RATES FOR THE BULLETIN

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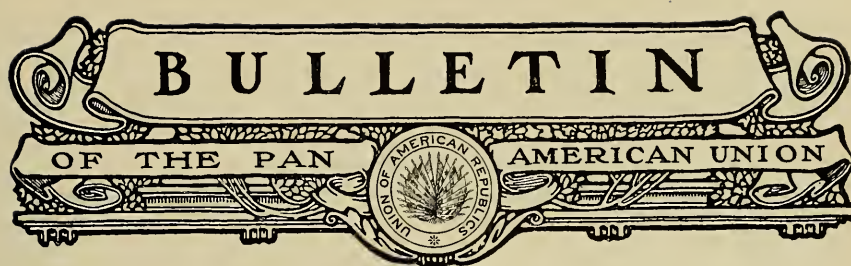
III





THE CRY OF YPIRANGA.

Dom Pedro may be seen in the center of this historic painting on the field of Ypiranga as he voiced the cry, 'Independence or death', on September 7, 1822.



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VOL. LXVII

SEPTEMBER 1933

No. 9

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## THE ANNIVERSARY OF BRAZILIAN INDEPENDENCE SEPTEMBER 7, 1822

### FOREWORD

By L. S. ROWE, Ph.D., LL.D.

*Director General of the Pan American Union*

THE Pan American Union deems it a privilege to issue this special number of the BULLETIN in honor of the glorious National Holiday of Brazil. The great epic of Brazil's struggle for independence constitutes one of the most inspiring chapters in the history of the republics of this Continent. Of the important dates that represent the successive steps in this struggle, the Brazilian Government has selected September 7, the Anniversary of Ypiranga, as the major date for national commemoration. The Pan American Union, through the BULLETIN, joins with the people of Brazil in the celebration of this notable anniversary.

# THE INDEPENDENCE OF BRAZIL<sup>1</sup>

By HILDEBRANDO ACCIOLY

*Member of the Brazilian Institute of History and Geography*

BRAZIL was led to proclaim her independence in 1822 by a series of circumstances peculiar to her history, which has been so different from that of the other Latin American countries.

The example of independence set by the English colonies and the movement of ideas which was one result of the French Revolution could not help having some repercussion in the great Portuguese colony of America. That repercussion, however, was necessarily restricted in a land so vast in area, with such deficient and rudimentary means of communication, where instruction was a privilege belonging almost exclusively to an unquestionably able but not numerous intellectual aristocracy—in a land which, during three centuries, the mother country had kept isolated from all foreign influence.

Nevertheless, the transference of the Portuguese Court to Rio de Janeiro, with the consequent opening of Brazilian ports to the commerce of all nations (decreed by a royal letter of January 28, 1808), hastened a development which otherwise would have taken place more slowly.

The first result of establishing the seat of government in Brazil, which until then had been simply a colony, was to awaken there a consciousness of autonomy. Furthermore, the opening of the ports fostered the entrance of new ideas, then in frank ebullition in western Europe, especially in France and England, the countries with which intercourse was most frequent. The development of international commerce in the colony also paved the way for an economic independence which naturally awakened aspirations for political freedom.

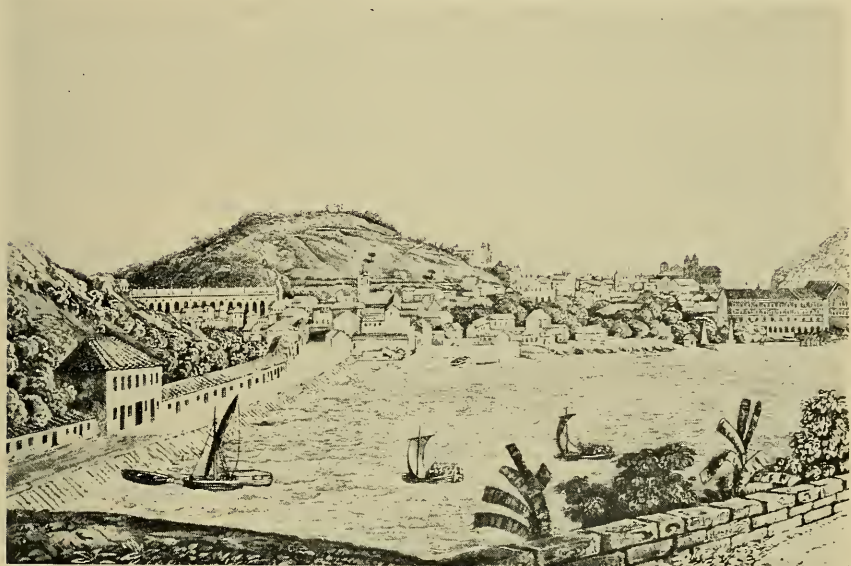
This freedom was realized by virtue of the decree of December 16, 1815, by which Brazil was raised to the category of a kingdom and transformed into a veritable seat of government. The progress from that state to complete independence, that is, to a separation of the American and European kingdoms, was the work of several years, for the difficulties to be surmounted were great. The chief difficulty was the immensity of Brazil, a fact from which all the others might be said to depend. That vast area, provided with scanty and precarious means of communication, made a decentralized administration of the country the most natural one, and thus the provinces were almost entirely isolated from one another. Between the centers of popula-

<sup>1</sup> See also BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for May 1922.—EDITOR.



tion, scattered for the most part along the seaboard, communication was very irregular. On this account, each Captaincy had developed along different lines, and many of them were in more direct contact with Lisbon than with Rio de Janeiro.

These facts account for the lack of any feeling of unity and the absence of a truly national sentiment, which arose only on the eve of independence. This was so evident that Feijó—one of the most notable figures of the epoch, a man who later, during the regency, revealed great abilities as a statesman and patriot—could say in the Cortes at Lisbon, where he represented the Province of São Paulo,



Courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington

RIO DE JANEIRO IN 1822.

This sketch of the city appeared in Maria Graham's *Journal of a Voyage to Brazil*, published in London in 1824.

"There are no deputies from Brazil here; the Americans in these halls represent solely the provinces which elected them."

Yet there were other forces to counteract such a state of affairs. First of all, the magnetic force of the crown, once it was established in Rio de Janeiro, fostered the growth of national unity. Then, too, the elevation of the country to the category of a kingdom and its economic development made any return to a colonial status difficult.

But the factor which perhaps contributed most to the formation of a national spirit and the rise of separatist feeling was the disastrous policy of the Cortes at Lisbon.



The constitutional revolution which, inspired by the example of Spain, broke out in Porto in August 1820, and spread so rapidly throughout Portugal and her colonies, caused the Cortes to be convoked to adopt a constitution for the Portuguese nation. While they were carefully drafting such a statute, however, a provisional constitution, based on the Spanish constitution of 1812, was proclaimed, and the Cortes, meeting in January 1821, assumed sovereign powers.

The liberal movement of Porto had repercussions in Brazil. Pará and Bahia promptly subscribed to it. In Rio de Janeiro sentiment was so strong that Dom João VI was obliged to swear in advance to uphold the constitution then being drafted in Lisbon.

Then from Portugal came a demand for the return of the monarch or of some member of the royal family who would represent him. The unhappy king, weak and vacillating, could not decide whether to send his oldest son, in whom he had little confidence and who, he feared, might proclaim himself king, or to go himself, for he had become so deeply attached to Brazil that he had no desire ever to leave it. He tried to postpone the decision, but the revolutionaries of Lisbon had reached the point where neither his return or that of the prince would satisfy them; they wished to recall all the royal family.

The Count of Palmella, ever since his arrival in Rio at the end of December 1820, had advised the king to grant a constitution to Portugal without delay, lest he should be forced to accede to another which would be forced upon him—as indeed did happen. The count also pointed out the imperative necessity of sending the Crown Prince to Portugal, to proclaim the constitution granted by the king and to satisfy popular clamor. The Minister of the Realm, Thomaz Antonio de Villanova Portugal, opposed these suggestions, and he, perhaps on account of his absolutist ideas, had become the favorite of Dom João VI. Among others who were opposed to the prince's departure were his followers, who wanted to force the king either to leave the country or to abdicate in favor of his son.

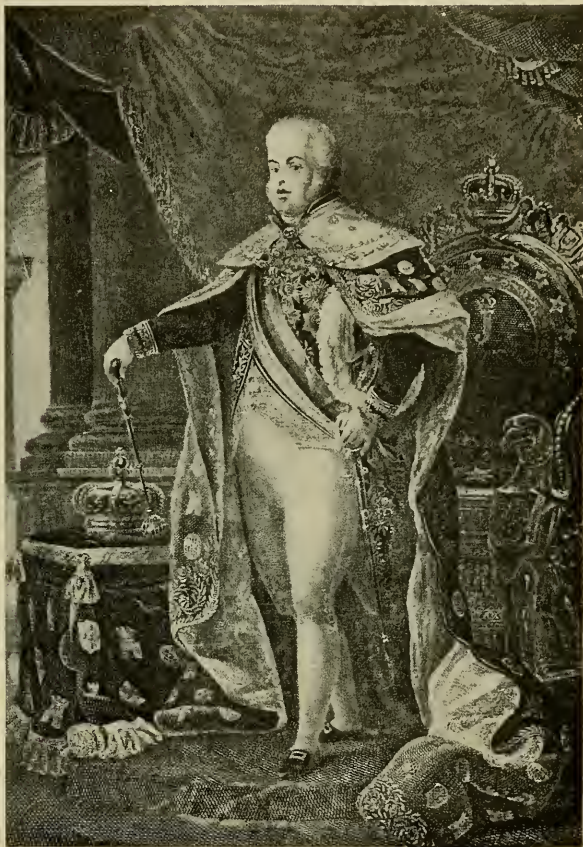
The sovereign wavered more and more between the importunities of Palmella, whose policies had the support of the English Government, and the advice of his favorite minister, with whom he privately concurred. He did at one time agree to his son's departure, but with restrictions, some designed to keep royal authority intact in Portugal, others, such as the retention of his daughter-in-law and a grandson in Brazil, perhaps intended to make Dom Pedro give up the voyage. The prince acquiesced in the decision, but made no effort to carry it out. And if, on the one hand, Dom Pedro's supporters (who by that time were known as the Brazilian Party) tried to prevent any action, on the other, the king himself, with his eternal hesitation, secretly rejoiced over the delays.

The civil and military proclamation of February 26, 1821, and the renewed and greater insistence from the former capital put an end to

Dom João's indecision. He ratified in advance the constitution which was being drafted in Lisbon, accepted the cabinet appointed for him, and entrusted to the new ministers the final resolution as to whether the Court should remain in Brazil. The Government Council, with but one dissenting vote—that of Silvestre Pinheiro, Minister of Foreign Affairs and of War—voted for the return of all the royal family with the exception of Dom Pedro and his wife. The decree of March 7 made the decision public and explained why it was

#### DOM JOÃO VI.

Dom João who was acting as Prince Regent when the Portuguese court was transferred to Brazil, later succeeded to the crown as King João VI of Portugal and Brazil. On returning to Portugal in 1821, he left his son Dom Pedro as Prince Regent in charge of Brazilian affairs.



necessary for the Court to return to the "former seat and original cradle of the monarchy"; it also entrusted the regency of Brazil to Dom Pedro in the absence of his father and summoned electors to choose representatives for the Constituent Assembly meeting in Lisbon. The meeting of the electors in Rio de Janeiro, on April 20, gave rise to riots, finally subdued by the militia; a few days afterward Dom João embarked for Europe, sad and disheartened, leaving the Crown Prince in charge of the country, with full power as Regent.

The departure of the king was a very important step in the final political emancipation of the American section of the Portuguese nation. Silvestre Pinheiro, with his well-known insight, had already foreseen the consequences when, opposing the king's departure, he said that "from the moment that His Majesty leaves Brazil this country can no longer be considered part of Portugal." The monarch himself, it would appear, had the same presentiment for, two days before sailing, he uttered the oft-quoted words, "Pedro, if Brazil becomes independent, I hope it will be under you, who will respect me, rather than under one of those adventurers."

Once the Cortes at Lisbon had brought about the return of the sovereign, they tried to decentralize the Brazilian provinces and make each one depend directly upon the former capital. Their intention became evident from various measures, some of which caused definite reaction in Brazil. The effects of their action were contrary to their intentions: instead of separating, they tended to unite all Brazilians—and also many of the Portuguese who had become attached to their American home—in their support of the young and dashing Prince Regent, who had become the focus of aspirations for autonomy.

Toward the end of 1821 there was great popular agitation in Rio de Janeiro which, although not openly separatist in character, at least was in decided opposition to the course of the Cortes at Lisbon. In October rumor was rife that Dom Pedro would be proclaimed king or emperor of Brazil.

It was not until December 9 that the Brazilian capital received the decrees of September 29, according to which the Cortes suppressed the higher Brazilian courts created by Dom João VI, and demanded that the Prince return promptly to Europe. When the news of this legislation became known in Rio de Janeiro, the public was aroused to great indignation, a sentiment which spread to other important parts of the country. The Prince himself began to feel the humiliation to which Lisbon was trying to subject him, but his first reaction was to obey the orders he had received.

But there were so many protests, so many demonstrations against his leaving, not only in Rio de Janeiro but also in the provinces of São Paulo and Minas Geraes, that the young Regent hesitated no longer. On January 9, 1822, the Prince replied to the wishes and suggestions of the Brazilian patriots (solemnly transmitted to him from the Senate of Rio de Janeiro and ably expressed by José Clemente Pereira, president of that body) in these terms, "Since it is for the good of all and the general welfare of the nation, I am ready; tell the people that I remain."

Once that step had been taken, Dom Pedro held back no longer. He yielded to the nationalist current, which bore him on to declare complete independence.



But that that would be the course of the current was not yet clearly evident. The desire at that time—although even then felt with a force that might be called irresistible—was equality of rights for the two portions of the Portuguese nation, the European and the American; what the latter were fighting against with all their might was being subjected to the former; what they were also trying to do was to condemn the reactionary and inept policy of the Lisbon Cortes and their decentralizing activities in regard to Brazil and, later, to denounce the “insulting state of captivity” to which “the agitators of Lisbon” had reduced the king, Dom João VI.



THE PALACE OF DOM JOÃO VI.

Early nineteenth century visitors to Rio de Janeiro described as “extremely handsome” the palace square which is here pictured by Lieutenant Chamberlain in a drawing made about 1819-20.

New and ill-considered measures of the Cortes hastened developments. To every attack from the other side of the Atlantic, Brazil replied with renewed expressions of its nationalistic spirit, by that time openly ready for a radical solution.

The Cortes, in trying to make Brazil revert to its colonial status, so that they could continue the old policy of spoliation—which had ceased only with the transference of the royal family to Rio de Janeiro—and in endeavoring to reduce the authority of the Prince and even to deprive him of his powers as Regent, had reduced the country to desperation and made the abused Dom Pedro the natural center of the separatist movement. The people, goaded to a desire for independence, rallied around the Prince, who was receiving nothing but discourtesy from Lisbon.



Owing to their obliviousness, the legislators in Lisbon failed to perceive the ever-widening abyss between the mother country and the young kingdom across the sea. It was their blindness which precipitated the final break.

They even sent a naval squadron to Rio de Janeiro to take Dom Pedro to Portugal by force. Yet the squadron, when it reached its destination, accomplished nothing; on the contrary, the commander had to submit to the orders issued by the Prince's government.

Later, the Cortes tried to prevent the exportation of arms and munitions to Brazil, and the Portuguese consuls in foreign ports received instructions to that effect. Rio replied first by informing foreign agents that Brazil was omitting customs formalities in shipments of war materials, and, later, by declaring that it would treat as enemies any troops from Portugal attempting to disembark without the authorization of the Brazilian Government.

The Prince had already, after a triumphant visit to the Province of Minas Geraes, accepted the title of "Perpetual Defender" of Brazil, with which he was invested May 13, 1822.

On June 3, at the request of the Council of Provincial Representatives, he called a Constituent Assembly. Shortly thereafter, in August, he issued two important proclamations, destined to mark new stages in the course which he was pursuing. The first of these documents, addressed to the Brazilians, began with the words, "The time for deceiving men has passed." Farther on, after condemning the acts of the Cortes, he declared, "The great step of independence has been taken. Now you are a sovereign people. Now you have entered the great society of independent nations, membership in which you have every right." In the second declaration, addressed to foreign nations, he stated the facts which had obliged him "to assent to the will of all Brazil, which hereby proclaims its political independence to the world."

Yet even this did not mean complete separation; both documents made it clear that the idea of the Regent was not to break "the ties of Portuguese brotherhood", but to harmonize "decorously and justly all the united Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarves." Yet while the King Dom João VI remained "a prisoner of State, under duress", the Government of Brazil desired to maintain the same friendly relations with foreign governments which such governments had until then maintained with Portugal.

For that purpose diplomatic representatives were sent to England and France, and another was appointed to the United States; he, however, was prevented by subsequent circumstances from starting on his mission.

Internal dissensions in São Paulo and invitations begging Dom Pedro to honor the Paulistas with a personal visit induced the Regent to undertake a journey to that province; he started out on August 14, 1822.

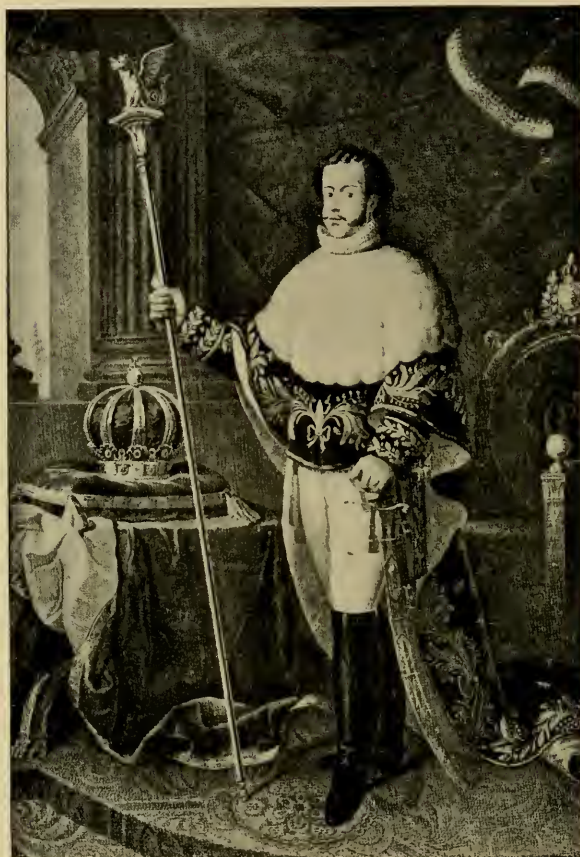
Meanwhile, patriotic agitation, by that time frankly separatist, continued in Rio de Janeiro. On the 20th of the same month, after Dom Pedro had left, Joaquim Gonçalves Lêdo, at a meeting held in a masonic lodge, upheld "the necessity of proclaiming independence as soon as possible and confirming the royal power in the person of the Prince Regent." On the 28th, messengers were chosen to spread this idea throughout the provinces.

While on the road, the Prince received continual proofs of consideration and esteem from the populace in every town through which he passed; on his arrival at the city of São Paulo, he was welcomed with salvos of artillery, the pealing of bells, and other demonstrations of joy.

After passing some days at the provincial capital, the Prince went to Santos; in the afternoon of September 7, as he was returning to São Paulo, a special messenger, bearing notices from Lisbon and correspondence from Rio, reached him near the Piranga, or Ypiranga, River. The news from Lisbon gave an account of new resolutions hostile to Brazil passed by the Cortes. These resolutions proposed that certain acts of the government of Rio de Janeiro, including the convocation of provincial representatives, should be annulled, and that the ministers of Dom Pedro and the signers of the communications addressed to him in the name of the provinces of São Paulo and Minas Geraes should be brought to trial. They provided, moreover, that the Prince should become merely the temporary delegate of the Cortes, subordinate to them, that he should have only secretaries of state appointed in Lisbon and exercise authority only over the provinces he was then governing. Finally, according to the despatches, a great military expedition was being equipped in Lisbon to go to Bahia, which the expedition would use as a base from which to attack the provinces unwilling to accept the direct control of Portugal.

In an accompanying letter, José Bonifacio de Andrada e Silva (Minister of the Realm and of Foreign Affairs) urged Dom Pedro to return without delay to Rio; he wrote, "Sir: The die is cast, and from Portugal we can expect only servitude and horrors. May it please your Royal Highness to return as soon as possible and come to a decision." The Princess D. Leopoldina also wrote him, saying that his personal appearance in the capital of the country was an immediate necessity, because only by his presence and the use of measures of great energy and rigor, could Brazil be saved from ruin.

After reading this correspondence Dom Pedro, who had retired from his retinue, could not contain his indignation. He crumpled the papers he had just received, and on the way to mount the horse which would carry him back to his suite, he made his final decision, expressed in the cry, "Independence or death!" Then he galloped on to where his guard of honor was awaiting him, and, telling them that the Cortes of Lisbon wished to "massacre" Brazil, he snatched from his hat the knot of blue and red ribbon, the Portuguese colors,



DOM PEDRO I.

Acclaimed the first King of Brazil by the *Bandeirantes* on September 7, 1822, Dom Pedro reigned as "Constitutional Emperor and Perpetual Defender of Brazil" until 1831.

threw it on the ground, and, unsheathing his sword, declared, "By my blood, by my honor, by my God, I swear to bring liberty to Brazil." Then taking command of the group, he shouted, "Let 'Independence or death' be our motto, green and yellow our national colors!"

The cry of "Independence or death" was repeated by everyone present, and reechoed in the fields of Ypiranga as though announcing the appearance of one more free nation in the New World.



That same night, the glorious people of the *Bandeirante*<sup>2</sup> country displayed their civic enthusiasm to Dom Pedro in the city of São Paulo by acclaiming the Prince as the first King of Brazil.

\* \* \*

The independence of Brazil was not the work of a single man or of a single group of men.

It is true that it centered about Dom Pedro. Yet, notwithstanding his inestimable services to the national cause, he was an instrument rather than an agent of the separatist movement, or of the circumstances which led to independence.

Although he was eager and ambitious, it never would have occurred to him to include in his calculations any division into two distinct nations of the dominions of a crown which he would have inherited in its entirety. Yet he could have foreseen from the course of events that sooner or later, especially if the Cortes of Lisbon continued their odious policies, Brazil would separate from the mother country and, being the richer and more important part of Lusitania, would be worth keeping for himself. Nevertheless, if Lisbon had not tried to humiliate him, if his dignity had not been cruelly affronted by certain resolutions passed in the Cortes, perhaps he would not have taken the position which circumstances forced him to take.

On the other hand, not all the men who surrounded him fully understood the implications of complete separation, and very few aspired to it. Some felt that aspiration only during the final months; others, even after the Cry of Ypiranga, had no clear idea of independence. Yet, however, that may be, all of them must have realized that without the help of the Prince, independence would have been very difficult and national unity even more so. It was he who, consciously or unconsciously, was the coordinating center of the forces and the energies that made Brazil independent and kept it united.

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<sup>2</sup> The *Bandeirantes* in Brazil were those first explorers from São Paulo, who adopted the practice of forming bands, "bandeiras", each with its own chief, and setting out to explore the country, for the purpose of future habitation as well as the discovery of gold. The Portuguese word "bandeira" really means "flag", and was adopted because of the fact that each band carried the flag of the Kingdom. Radiating from São Paulo and penetrating to the far north, south, and west, the *Bandeirantes* were in reality destined to be the discoverers and settlers of central Brazil. Minas Geraes, Goyaz, and Matto Grosso all owe their opening up and initial settlement to the bandeirantes. Today *Bandeirante* is synonymous with *Paulista*, and is applied to all the people of the State of São Paulo, which is often referred to as *O Estado Bandeirante*.—A. d'A. M.







JOSÉ BONIFÁCIO DE ANDRADA E SILVA.

Brazil is represented in the Gallery of Patriots of the Pan American Union by this bust of José Bonifácio whose efforts in freeing his country from Portugal won him the title of "Patriarch of Independence."

# JOSÉ BONIFACIO, PATRIARCH OF BRAZILIAN INDEPENDENCE <sup>1</sup>

By MAX FLEIUSS

*Permanent Secretary of the Brazilian Institute of Geography and History*

WHEN that great Brazilian statesman José Maria da Silva Paranhos, Junior, Baron of Rio-Branco, selected José Bonifacio de Andrada e Silva as the figure to symbolize Brazil in the Gallery of Patriots of the Pan American Union, he made a wise choice with a sound historical basis.

It cannot be gainsaid that José Bonifacio was the brightest star of the Brazilian political constellation, which contained such individuals of unsurpassed brilliance as Dom Pedro II, the Magnanimous; Princess Isabel, *a Redemptora*;<sup>2</sup> the Duke of Caxias; Osorio; the Viscount of Rio-Branco; Paraná; Ouro-Preto; and the Baron of Rio-Branco himself. To José Bonifacio fell the role of bringing about independence, for his remarkable insight enabled him to profit by the mistakes of earlier attempts and, by taking advantage of latent circumstances, to bring about the *dénouement*.

The Conspiracy of Minas in 1789, led by Claudio Manuel da Costa, Gonzaga, Francisco de Paula, Alvarenga, and others, and, because of his martyrdom, centering about Joaquin José da Silva Xavier, or *Tiradentes*, requires but brief mention here. For the first decisive step in the political emancipation of the colony was the arrival of the Portuguese royal family in 1808, because the seat of government was transferred from Lisbon to Rio de Janeiro. The Pernambuco Revolution of 1817 was another factor of irrefutable importance; it was republican in character, and to a great degree resulted from the attitude toward Brazil held by the Portuguese who had followed the Court there.

But none of these or other early attempts had any lasting consequences; they were mere aspirations, some markedly monarchic, others democratic in spirit. None was, indeed, more than a noble effort until the action of José Bonifacio made itself felt.

<sup>1</sup> See also BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for May 1929.—EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> On May 13, 1888, the Princess Isabel, who was regent during her father's absence in Europe, signed the law abolishing slavery in Brazil.—EDITOR.

At that time—he was fifty-eight years old—he enjoyed a richly deserved reputation in literature, science, government, and even warfare, for he had fought as lieutenant-colonel of a student corps during the French invasion of Portugal.

While the Prince Regent Dom Pedro was hesitating whether or not to obey the orders of the Portuguese Cortes to return to Europe, he received the bold—to quote Varnhagen—statement of the Junta of São Paulo, of which José Bonifacio was vice president. Varnhagen attributes the authorship of the document to José Bonifacio, although Oyenhausen, later Marquis of Aracati, was the first to sign it. The statement was published by order of the Prince in the *Gazeta Extraordinaria do Rio de Janeiro* on January 8, 1822. The next day, the 9th, Dom Pedro gave his famous reply known as *Fico*,<sup>3</sup> which was his first defiance of the increasingly aggressive messages from the Cortes. On January 16, less than a week after the *Fico*, José Bonifacio was named Minister of the Realm and of Foreign Affairs, the head of the Government, so to speak; in that capacity he contributed all his influence to furthering the new political situation. The cabinet of January 16, 1822, became known, therefore, as the Ministry of Independence.

Once in power, José Bonifacio must have remembered his words before the Royal Academy of Science of Lisbon in his farewell speech of June 19, 1819: "I have to leave for a distant land and therefore the lessons which I have been taking from you must cease. At least I can console myself with the thought that even in the rude interior of America I shall do what I can to be useful to you. I am equally cheered by the thought that you, on your part, will fulfill the obligation which all Portugal owes to her emancipated daughter, who should now set up her own home, by sharing with her your knowledge, counsel, and instruction. What a country it is, gentlemen, for a new civilization, a new center of learning! What a land for a great and vast Empire!"

Events happened in rapid succession: the convocation of a Constituent Assembly; the first meeting of the Provincial representatives; the declaration that any armed force from Portugal would be treated as an enemy unless it agreed to return immediately; the proclamation of Dom Pedro to the friendly nations; and, later, the visit of the Prince to São Paulo, where he was received with enthusiasm and where he was successful in putting an end to all dissension.

On September 2 of the same year (1822), the Council of State met in a solemn session presided over by the Princess Leopoldina; Councillor Obes spoke of the latest news from Portugal—that the mother country not only intended to send fresh troops to Brazil, but also had made insulting references to "our August Defender." He ended

<sup>3</sup> See p. 686.

his speech with the following words, "We must lose no time, for the Cortes has shown its true colors by demanding from His Royal Highness the most humiliating submission, and from Brazil such a humiliation as would never have been exacted from our forefathers."

The Council resolved to put an immediate embargo on the funds of the Companhia de Vinhos do Douro in retaliation; to take such measures as might be necessary for security and defense; and to have each councillor present other plans in the next session, the military members being requested to draw up a plan of campaign after consultation with the Ministries of War and the Navy. The secretary of that meeting was Joaquim Gonçalves Lêdo, another hero of independence. Martim Francisco, a brother of José Bonifacio and Minister of the Treasury, turned to Princess Leopoldina and said: "If anything is to be done, Senhora, it should be done at once."

A letter containing an account of the meeting was handed to Paulo Bregaro, the palace messenger, by José Bonifacio himself, to be rushed to the Prince at São Paulo. And with these documents, according to the statement of General José Maria Pinto Peixoto, went a letter of the Princess to Dom Pedro, which contained this significant sentence: "The apple is ripe; pick it before it spoils." That Austrian princess, later the first empress of Brazil, was an extraordinary woman, truly the champion of independence. How often she and José Bonifacio influenced the all-too-vacillating mind of the Prince!

It was after that meeting, on the seventh of September, that Dom Pedro, on reading the papers delivered by Bregaro, exclaimed on the banks of the Ypiranga: "It is time! Independence or death! We have separated from Portugal!"

One more American nation had been created, expressing not only the efforts of a whole people, a princess, and a prince regent who represented the King of Portugal, but also the patriotic intelligence of José Bonifacio de Andrada e Silva, who has been consecrated by posterity with the glorious title, *Patriarch of Independence*.







Courtesy of Pan American Airways

A SECTION OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

This view of the city from Corcovado shows the semicircular Bay of Botafogo and the residential section of the city extending between Corcovado and Sugar Loaf.

# A TRIP TO RIO DE JANEIRO

By PAUL MEKLENBURG

**S**OUTH AMERICA—a new “wide-open space” for the diversion of the tourist stream—is becoming increasingly popular every year with the North American public, since a trip to this enchanting southern continent is in so great a contrast to the usual travel path. A tour to the sunny tropical shores of Brazil, especially a visit to Rio de Janeiro, its largest city, unsurpassed in beauty and splendor, will certainly remain an unforgettable joy and delight.

Much has been written in travel books and geographical magazines about the magnificent city of Rio de Janeiro, the capital of the largest South American nation, and much has been said in general praise of this colorful tropical place, without presenting the really intimate points of interest that make up the incoherent, multiform impressions which a traveler takes away with him as a permanent part of his inner self.

It has been the intention of the author to keep in this travel account the intimate touch of personal observation and appreciation that only long and loving association with a place can give. It has been divided into a geographical sketch of Brazil, the sea voyage from New York to Rio de Janeiro, the city of Rio de Janeiro, and the surroundings of Rio de Janeiro.

## GENERAL DATA ABOUT BRAZIL

No traveler visiting a country for the first time can fully appreciate the peculiar individuality which distinguishes that country from all others unless he has some understanding of the general geographical conditions which make that individuality possible. The knowledge of a few preliminary facts helps to lessen considerably the shock (no matter how pleasant) of coming in contact with an alien people speaking an alien tongue. Besides, how many of us remember as far back as our elementary school geography books? It is, accordingly, the purpose of this first section to give a few fundamental facts about Brazil.

The largest country of South America, Brazil, has an area of about 3,250,000 square miles, thereby exceeding the size of continental United States (exclusive of Alaska) by 250,000 square miles. Brazil extends 2,690 miles from north to south and 2,500 miles from east to west. Its coastline bordering on the Atlantic Ocean extends for about 4,100 miles; to give a clear idea of this tremendous distance,

it may be mentioned that vessels engaged in coastwise shipping require from 14 to 16 days to cover the coastline of Brazil.

The northern part of the country, with its vast forests practically untouched, is the basin of the Amazon River, whose extraordinary length (3,854 miles) makes it the largest river in the world. Rising in the Peruvian Andes in the west, it, with its tributaries, drains 2,000,000 square miles of territory, and empties into the Atlantic Ocean at the Equator near the city of Pará. This mightiest of rivers is navigable to vessels of deep draft for about 2,300 miles.

A proportionately small part only of the rich agricultural land in central and southern Brazil has been cultivated. Coffee is the leading and most valuable agricultural product. Four fifths of the world's coffee supply is grown there, chiefly in the States of São Paulo and Rio. The city of Santos, located about 200 miles south of Rio de Janeiro, is the largest and most important coffee port, whence the most popular American breakfast beverage is shipped to our tables. The average annual crop is about 14,000,000 sacks. In 1927 there were exported 15,000,000 bags, valued at \$300,000,000, representing 70 percent of the total exports; over one half of this coffee went to the United States.

Enjoying a quasi-monopoly of the world coffee trade, Brazil has been able to influence the price of this product in the world market by restricting her exports, a control that was successful for many years. However, under the pressure of constantly accumulating stocks of coffee—due to the large crops and an over-expanding industry—prices broke in 1929, and since then the coffee problem has been the most serious economic question confronting the Brazilian Government. To eliminate the vast accumulated stocks of coffee the Government has been purchasing the retained coffee stocks and destroying them by fire and by dumping at sea. Destruction to the end of April 1933 had passed 16,500,000 bags of 132 pounds each.

Other exports are rubber, cocoa, tobacco, leather, meat. Brazil ranks fourth among cane sugar producing countries.

Industries in general are still in an early stage of development, but manufacturing of all kinds is being fostered.

The vast mineral wealth of the country is little developed. Coal deposits are extensive but of inferior quality.

Such means of communication in Brazil as railroads and highways are also very little developed. In 1930 there were about 20,000 miles of railroads in operation, confined chiefly to the territory along the coastline, and only about 6,000 miles of first-class roads in use. Transportation by horse and mule, even in regions near the coast, but especially in the interior of the country, is still common.

The population of Brazil is, according to the last census in 1929, about 41,000,000. The capital, Rio de Janeiro—literally, River of



January—had in 1929 about one and one half million inhabitants, São Paulo is the second largest city, with about 880,000.

The native tongue of Brazil is Portuguese, just as Spanish is the language of the other independent Republics of South America and English that of the United States, because the mother countries of these nations were, respectively, Portugal, Spain, and England.

The country has a variety of climates, ranging from the very hot temperatures in the north near the equatorial belt to the cooler and more refreshing ones both in the highlands, as for example, in São Paulo, and in the temperate zone farther south, as in Rio Grande do Sul. Rio de Janeiro itself has a moderately hot climate, with occasional rainy periods in the summertime, which extends from October to March.

#### THE VOYAGE FROM NEW YORK TO RIO DE JANEIRO

What a pleasant and enjoyable sea trip it will be! As we embark, we have the wonderful feeling in heart and mind that we shall escape for a while from chilly northern climes and sail toward a friendly, warm, and sunny south! We look forward to two days at sea before passing the Bermuda Islands, or stopping there for a brief visit; then about 10 days more at sea, all play and pleasure and rest and relaxation, sailing ever under the gorgeous clear-blue tropical sky through the deep-blue sapphire waters of the South Atlantic, or under the vast expanse of stars and the Southern Cross on mellow tropical nights. The greatest thrill of all will come at the very end of the voyage, when we arrive at Rio de Janeiro and view the incomparable panorama of the harbor of Rio and the city itself.

The distance from New York to Rio is 4,955 sea miles, and modern steamers of the usual passenger-freight type cover it in 11 to 14 sailing days. The four new motor ships recently introduced are at present the fastest in the service, making Rio on the morning of the twelfth day from New York. After leaving Rio de Janeiro all these vessels proceed farther south to Santos, Montevideo, and, finally, Buenos Aires, the terminal port of their voyage.

After our steamer has passed the last landmark linking us to American soil, the lighthouse of Sandy Hook, and dropped the pilot at the end of the channel at Ambrose Lightship, the ship's bow is pointed southeast. About 20 hours after leaving New York we notice quite a change in temperature, moderate warm weather prevailing with a blue sky and fairly smooth sea. We are now entering the famous Gulf Stream, which decreases the speed of every vessel going in the opposite direction. Our entrance into it is made evident by a distinct change in the color of the water to a beautiful deep blue, very soothing to the eyes.



In less than two days after leaving New York the friendly picturesque Bermudas, with their glitter of white houses and green palm trees against a blue sky, come into sight. Bermuda is the oldest self-governing colony in the British Empire and of the 30,000 inhabitants (1931) about one half are white, most of the families being of English stock and tracing their ancestry to the earliest settlers. The sub-tropical climate of these islands, surrounded by the mild Gulf Stream, is believed to be the most equable in the world. All seasons of the



PANORAMIC VIEW OF  
THE AVENIDA RIO  
BRANCO.

Extending through the commercial center of Rio de Janeiro is the broad Avenida Rio Branco, which is lined with some of the city's finest structures, among them the Monroe Palace (now the National Senate), the National Library, Academy of Fine Arts, the Municipal Building, the Municipal Theater, and numerous office buildings.

year are delightful to the visitor; thus Bermuda is an attractive and ideal tourist center the whole year round.

A short time after leaving these charming islands behind us, we are aware of another change in the appearance of the sea. Looking down over the ship's railing we notice all around us millions and millions of small brown water plants like sponges, floating on the surface of the water. We have entered that very interesting natural phenomenon known as the Sargasso Sea. This is the only place in the world's seven seas where this strange floating plant formation

called sea grass can be found; it extends about from the Bermuda Islands to 20° north latitude. Watching the ship's bow cut through these brown water plants on a perfectly smooth sea gives the impression of passing through a blooming garden.

After passing the Sargasso Sea, the Tropical Zone is reached; it extends from 23.5° north latitude (the Tropic of Cancer) to 23.5° south latitude (the Tropic of Capricorn). Since Rio de Janeiro is practically located on the latter, we have to navigate through the entire Tropical Zone from north to south, and during all this time the characteristic high but dry tropical heat will prevail. In conformity with the old traditional sea custom, Father Neptune boards our ship at the Equator, and the gay and comical ceremony remains memorable, in more ways than one, to the travelers experiencing their first crossing of the "Line."

After passing the Equator, the ship's course is changed for the first time since our departure from New York; it is now directed southwest and will not be altered to any great extent until we arrive at Rio. On this last stretch of our sea voyage, which will require only about four or five days more, two other sights of interest may be encountered, depending on the ship's course. They are in both cases lonely islands isolated in the South Atlantic. One is St. Paul Rocks, a British possession, located almost on the Equator midway between South America and Africa. The other is Fernando Noronha Island, which, about 125 miles northeast of the eastern tip of the South American continent, serves as Brazil's penal island.

Our delightful sea voyage comes to an end as we approach our destination, Rio de Janeiro. Like a fantastic, colorful stage-setting, the spacious harbor enhances the magnificent pageant of the city itself. The mountain peaks of Corcovado and Sugar Loaf deepen the color of the water with their shadow, which contrasts with the reflection cast by the delicate blue of the tropical sky. Impressive boulevards with snow-white houses and green palm trees stretch for miles along the edge of the bay, and as the steamer nears the dock—which can be accomplished without the assistance of tugboats on account of the great depth and width of the harbor—the characteristic heartbeat of a modern metropolis begins to throb in us too and we know we are now in "Rio, the jewel of South America."

#### THE CITY OF RIO DE JANEIRO

The Brazilians certainly do not exaggerate when they proudly call their capital *Rio, a cidade mais linda do mundo*—Rio, the most beautiful city in the world. For we are not long in Rio before the unique beauty of its panorama convinces us that their boast is not an empty one, and we yield completely to its magic charm.

Rio's scenic loveliness may be likened to a great painting of consummate beauty containing every conceivable shade and hue, an abso-

lute harmonic synthesis of light and shadow in colors that only nature can bring to perfection.

There are few cities that can be compared with Rio in combining the old and new in such a delightful manner. There we see gay-colored stucco houses with red-tiled roofs and the wooden shutters found everywhere in tropical countries; queer winding streets reminiscent of Lisbon; and small two-wheeled carriages drawn by mules, competing with modern electric street cars.

And then there is smart, modern, cosmopolitan Rio, a city of more than a million people, who keep a graceful, unruffled tenor of life. We can find new and up-to-date hotels with the latest conveniences, in



Courtesy of Paul Mcklenburg.

#### THE MUNICIPAL THEATRE, RIO DE JANEIRO.

This handsome building, which ranks among the finest opera houses of the world, occupies a prominent site on the Avenida Rio Branco at the Praça Marechal Floriano Peixoto.

town or at the beaches; modern office and public buildings; sidewalks beautifully laid out with stone mosaic-work; theaters and night clubs that remind us of those in New York; a casino with an international atmosphere; and a marvelous racetrack on the outskirts of the city. Like other tourists, we may hire a car of the latest model of a familiar American make, or use one of the large modern busses, to enjoy delightful hours of sightseeing through Rio's broad avenues, through parks with strange flowers and tropical trees, along beautiful beaches bordering on the Atlantic, and over modern roads on mountain sides. Trips to the summits of Corcovado and Sugar Loaf are made available by modern transportation facilities; from either summit we can enjoy



an incomparable view of the city, the bay, and the Atlantic Ocean. A boat excursion can also be taken across Guanabara Bay to picturesque pleasure resorts directly opposite Rio, along the shore beyond Nictheroy.

Over all this lingers an atmosphere of sweetness and friendliness intensified by the hospitable attitude of the people themselves, whose grace and courtesy alone would make the visit unforgettable.

Since we are now familiar with the chief general characteristics of Rio, let us undertake a stroll through the interior of the city, that we may get more acquainted with the intimate places of interest and their location.

Starting our sightseeing trip at the steamer docks, a great center of activity, we pass the new buildings of the customs and port authorities and of the chief evening newspaper, *A Noite*, and cross the circular Praça Mauá. There we turn directly into the beautiful and broad main street of Rio, the Avenida Rio Branco. This principal traffic artery extends in a straight line for about two miles through the city's hub of activity until it meets the bay again at the other end. The lower part of this avenue corresponds to the down-town district of New York, but the similarity ends here, for the beautiful trees which line both sides of the avenue make business seem only an interlude before pleasure. Here are found the buildings wherein are located steamship offices, export and import firms, banking houses, and consulates of various countries. Among these is the American Consulate, which is in the building owned and occupied by the *Jornal do Commercio*—Rio's most important morning newspaper—at the intersection of the Avenida with the Rua do Ouvidor. This cross-street is the busiest shopping and commercial thoroughfare. Since it is very narrow, no vehicular traffic is allowed, and throngs of people, always in bright and colorful summer attire, dominate it. On the corner of these two streets is one of Rio's largest department stores, the Casa Colombo, where an excellent restaurant furnishing delightful music in the afternoons is to be found. Other important streets cross the Avenida Rio Branco leading to the general residential sections of the town on the one hand and to the ferry-docks (Barcas), the Praça Quinze de Novembro, the fruit market, and the main post office (Correio Principal) on the other.

In between these streets along the Avenida we find innumerable cafés of different sizes and standards, which are so typical of Rio. Many of them have tables and chairs outside on the sidewalk, recalling the boulevards and streets of Paris, Berlin, or Habana. There we can make a little study of the Brazilians. We find them sitting at these places until all hours of the day and night by their *nth chicara de café*, small cups of the strong black coffee that is Brazil's national beverage, smoking their *cigarros* and *charutos*, and illustrating their





GARDENS OF THE PRAÇA DO PARIS.

Adjoining the grounds of the Monroe Palace are these delightful formal gardens traversed by the splendid Avenida Beira Mar with its multiple traffic lanes. The turreted building to the right is the Beira Mar Casino.

discussions with animated gesticulation. The outstanding cafes in this section are patronized chiefly by business men, and at the *confeiterias* we find the Senhoras and Senhorinhas of Rio society sipping their tea or coffee in the afternoon to the languorous melody of a tango. In front of the most popular, another very typical Brazilian custom may be observed. Every afternoon between 3 and 5 o'clock the ladies, all more or less charming and beautiful, promenade up and down this section of the Avenida. The younger ones, who are never alone but always accompanied by a chaperon, hold a fashion show of their own.

Near this section of the city's social activity we take notice of another center of activity, but of a different kind. It is found in the Brahma Building or Hotel Avenida, with three corner restaurants at the street level and an outer arcade on the Avenida, where a great number of street-car lines to various suburbs of the town have their starting point. Inner arcades lined with stores, ticket-offices, cafes, etc., lead through the interior of the building. This is a very popular and convenient meeting place for everyone in Rio and is crowded at all times.

Continuing our sightseeing through the uptown district of Rio, that is, the upper part of the Avenida Rio Branco, we pass the Palace Hotel and the fashionable Jockey Club on the left, and the Navy Club on the right. We now reach a large public square of great beauty and charm, the Praça Floriano Peixoto. This square, with its tropical flowers and trees, is surrounded by impressive buildings, among them the Theatro Municipal, Rio's opera house, a building of great architectural splendor, whose broad marble steps lead to the imposing entrance far above the street. In this "Temple of the Muses" guest performances are given every winter from May to



SUGAR LOAF SHOWING APPROACH OF AERIAL TRAM.

Pão d'Assucar (Sugar Loaf) rises impressively from the waters of the bay at the entrance to the harbor. The sole approach to this mountain is by aerial trolley cars. The first section of the route, covering 600 meters in length and rising to a height of 220 meters, brings the traveler, in 4 minutes, to the smaller mountain of Urca, where a change of cars is made. The second section, 800 meters long, is covered in 5 minutes to the summit of Sugar Loaf.

October, chiefly by opera companies from France, Italy, and Germany. On the right of the square up-to-date office buildings are found, which contain three modern moving-picture theaters, or cinemas. On the same side the Camara Municipal or City Hall, a magnificent building of beautiful structural lines, will attract our attention. Where the Avenida Rio Branco terminates, another remarkable building catches our eye, the Monroe Palace, the only surviving structure of the World Exposition in 1910. It is impressive architecturally and can be easily distinguished from a ship entering the harbor.

For the first time since the start of our sightseeing tour at the steamer docks, we leave the Avenida Rio Branco entirely. Turning to the right, another impressive sight presents itself, the park *Passeio Publico*, small in dimension but of great scenic beauty and charm. Many specimens of strange and unusual flowers, trees, and creeping plants peculiar to tropical vegetation attract our attention, and the great cultural value of the place encourages us to stay for a short time. Rio's Carnegie Hall, called the *Instituto Nacional de Musica*, is located directly opposite the park; its very interesting interior is the work of a renowned artist. Orchestral concerts and individual recitals of a high musical standard take place here during the winter months.

Making a short left swing now, we come close to the shore for the first time, and its beauty and splendor spread out before our eyes with a new significance. For the rest of our sightseeing trip we shall stay near the edge of the bay until we reach our terminal point, Copacabana, on the Atlantic seaboard. After passing the first section of this splendid drive, called *Beira Mar*, and the imposing *Hotel Gloria*, one of Rio's most beautiful and up-to-date hotels, we turn into the *Praia de Flamengo* (*Flamengo Beach*) which runs parallel to the fashionable residential district of Flamengo. This boulevard, broad enough for tree-lined sidewalks, a bridle path, and two traffic lanes separated by flower beds, is certainly the most beautiful of all thoroughfares in Rio. To the right *Corcovado* rises above the roofs of the houses, whose bright colors glitter in the sunlight. All the homes are surrounded by palm gardens and blooming flowers. To the left the shadows of the mountain ranges on the opposite shore mingle in a wonderful play of colors with the deep blue of the bay water; and ahead of us *Pão d'Assucar*, or *Sugar Loaf*, rises, imposing and cone-shaped, steep from the surface of the water. After a glorious sunset it is a spiritual experience to watch the shadows of the night creep over the mountain tops, and the mellow light of a silver moon mix with the lights of thousands of street lamps, which like a string of pearls along the harbor's boulevards are reflected in the dark and mysterious water of the bay.

The last section of this drive, called the *Praia de Botafogo*, is just as beautiful and charming as the other two parts; at the end of it we leave Guanabara Bay for the high climax of our sightseeing tour. For we are nearing the *Praia de Copacabana*, which faces the Atlantic Ocean and is the jewel of Rio's seashore resorts. The drive along the bay is continued here beside the mighty, thundering Atlantic, and the broad ocean boulevard extends in all its splendor for several miles almost in a straight line. Here Rio's population seek rest and recreation for mind and body.



The magnificent structure of the lavishly equipped Hotel Palacio de Copacabana dominates the shore's panorama. It is an international rendezvous, and the tongues of many nations may be heard here. It is one of the finest and most up-to-date of all the hostleries to be found in South America. We also discover the well-known Casino de Copacabana, sometimes called the "Monte Carlo of Brazil"; it is a popular spot in the evening for those with a whim to bargain with "Lady Luck" at the roulette wheels or at the card tables.

We have now come to the end of our interesting and pleasurable sightseeing tour. As we stand at the edge of the ocean, fascinated by



MOUNT CORCOVADO FROM BOTAFOGO BAY.

Surmounting this 2,300-foot peak is "Christ the Redeemer", a giant figure with arms outstretched over the city; it was dedicated in 1931.

its gigantic majesty, we seem to hear in the tremendous roar of the waves, as the powerful finale of a harmonic experience, a penetrating call echoing, "Rio, a cidade mais linda do mundo"!

#### THE SURROUNDINGS OF RIO DE JANEIRO

We have seen so far the colorful picture of splendor and beauty that is the city itself, but the picture would be incomplete without a harmonious frame. We find this in the magnificent and imposing surroundings of Rio, which will link up with our earlier impressions to make a perfectly concordant whole.



With its picturesque suburbs, its far-reaching mountain ranges, and its fascinating harbor, Rio offers a great variety of excursions and sightseeing tours, which will certainly be as enjoyable as our trip through the city itself.

The two most famous landmarks outside Rio, both located near the city limits, are the mountain formations Corcovado and Sugar Loaf, which will certainly engage most of our attention. Countless times already have we seen their summits dominating the city's panorama.

A visit to the peak of Corcovado (which means hunchback) is an unforgettable experience. It rises more than 2,300 feet above the sea level, forming the highest elevation in the vicinity of Rio. The summit is reached by a narrow-gage cog-wheel railway, which climbs above the landscape gradually and slowly in winding corkscrew-and hairpin-turns. This interesting ride passes through vast and practically untouched forest regions. There the animal kingdom enjoys unlimited freedom and abounds in great variety in the wild tropical wilderness. We hear the chirping and singing of strange birds mingled occasionally with the screeches of parrots and monkeys. The climax of this fascinating excursion comes, of course, when we reach the peak after a long climb. But even if it had taken twice as long we should not mind, for the world's most magnificent panorama stretches before our eyes and we are repaid a thousandfold for our efforts. We get an incomparable view of the city with its suburbs, the broad harbor with its ever-gleaming deep-blue waters dotted with incoming and outgoing steamers, the limitless ocean extending northward and southward, and the innumerable mountain ranges surrounding Rio in all directions. Looking down from this remarkable height we lose our sense of time and space for a brief moment and get a curious impression of a toy landscape in a child's land of make-believe, with the sky and clouds hovering above like a fairy dream.

The other outstanding and characteristic sight, and one somewhat nearer to Rio, is the Pão d'Assucar. This impressive pyramidlike mountain rising steep from the water's surface stands as a natural fortification watching over the entrance to the harbor. Its summit is 1,200 feet above sea level and, in contrast to Corcovado, only the lower belt of this granite-rock formation is covered with dense forests. The sole way to reach the peak of Sugar Loaf is by aerial trolley cars which run on very strong steel cables and represent a splendid engineering achievement. After boarding one of these small but comfortable cars, which is equipped with large observation windows and has a seating capacity for about 20 persons, we are lifted smoothly and gradually into the air, going steadily higher toward the first stop, which is the top of the smaller mountain, Urca. This is located between Sugar Loaf and the starting point on the mainland, and serves as a place to change from one car to another. Here we enjoy a brief

rest at a restaurant with pleasant surroundings, and we catch our breath for the next stage of the aerial trip, which brings us to the summit of Sugar Loaf where we can get a view as beautiful and charming as that from Corcovado. The impression is even enhanced, for looking behind us we can see the characteristic form of Corcovado surrounded by a mystically dim crown of distant mountain ranges.

Not far away from Sugar Loaf we find more opportunities for pleasure, drives along the Avenida Niemayer and the Avenida Atlantica, which are greatly recommended as delightful means of getting away from the city. The trip takes about three or four hours.



CANTO DO RIO.

From Nictheroy across the bay, the rugged skyline of Rio de Janeiro is spread out in a magnificent panorama. The beaches of Praia das Flechas, Icarahy, and Canto do Rio adjoining Nictheroy are popular resorts.

These two splendid roads, stretching one after another for miles along the shore of the Atlantic, are a continuation of the Praia de Copacabana, where, as we recall, our sightseeing tour through the city came to an end. A drive over these smooth and modern highways is a very impressive and interesting adventure; on one side steep mountain ranges, either plain rock formations or covered with dense forests, line the seaboard, and on the other the great ocean itself extends before our eyes, varying its color every now and then. Occasionally we discover along the route fantastic natural caves, hewn out and formed by the resistless force of the pounding ocean waves.

A trip across Guanabara Bay to Nictheroy is another attractive and fascinating sightseeing tour, entirely different from the other pleasure trips. At the dock we board a large and modern ferry designed and built in the United States. The refreshing and restful trip across the harbor takes about 25 minutes. For the first time we are able to see from close by the entire panorama of Rio and its surroundings in all its beauty and splendor, silhouetted against the deep blue background of the sky. We also get a truer conception of the tremendous breadth of the harbor. Upon arriving at Nictheroy, the capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro, we board one of the small open street cars next to the ferry docks and travel for about an hour along the shore to the picturesque summer resort Icarahy. The view here comes as a climax to all the others; practically everything that we had seen before separately is now brought together in a vast panorama of overwhelming splendor, for separated from us by the bay, Rio itself, its suburbs, Corcovado, Sugar Loaf, and the surrounding countryside assume a new and entrancing perspective.

And here shall it be, as the sun sends its last rays over the beloved mountains and harbor and invests in a golden sheen all the loveliness that poured its molten impressions into the mold of our memory, that we say *até a vista* to Rio, the beautiful.





# FORESTRY IN BRAZIL

By WM. T. COX

*Organizer of the Brazilian Forest Service*

TO write of forestry in Brazil is to describe an infant. But it is an infant that may be likened to the baby elephant, for it gives promise of great growth and strength and possibilities.

No other country in the world can match Brazil in the extent, variety, and richness of her forests. In the valley of the Amazon alone, most of which is in Brazil, virgin forests cover an area larger than all of the United States west of the Mississippi.

It was my privilege to be the first forester to explore these vast *mattas* of the Amazon and of the Brazilian hinterlands. And what a joy it was to see a million square miles of untouched timber awaiting the application of silviculture—a million square miles of verdant hills and valleys covered with hardwoods and palms, still further beautified with gorgeous flowers and birds and butterflies, watered by countless unpolluted streams, and occupied by primitive Indian tribes. After spending thirty years fighting in the ranks of foresters to save a remnant of our cut-over and burned-over North American forests, this was indeed a pleasure. I believe I can now appreciate how Daniel Boone felt when he struck the elk and bison herds of Kentucky and how the Israelites thrilled at their first glimpse of the promised land.

My mission to South America was at the request of the Brazilian Government; the two years spent in that delightful country were occupied in traveling through the different forest regions to get first-hand information, studying the needs of the timber industry, determining what lands should be set aside as permanent National and State Forests, finding out what might be done to encourage tree planting on the extensive *campos* or prairies of southern Brazil, conducting a publicity campaign to awaken more widespread interest in forestry, and finally, preparing a plan to enable the government to bring about forest conservation and encourage the development of forest industries along safe lines.

In this work I had the able assistance of several North American foresters and a number of college-trained Brazilians. I also had the cooperation first of Dr. Lyra de Castro and later of Dr. Assis Brasil, who successively held the cabinet position of Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, and who personally were much interested in the work we were doing. The late Dr. W. A. Orton, of the Tropical



Plant Foundation, had done excellent preliminary work in arranging for the mission. Dr. P. S. Rolfs, of Viçosa, Minas Geraes, the eminent authority on the tropical fruit industry, Dr. Navarro de Andrade, the eucalyptus expert for the Paulista Railroad, our diplomatic, consular, and commercial officials and representatives, and those of Great Britain, were all helpful in furnishing information and smoothing the way for the necessary exploration work.

The forests of Brazil are more than mere forests. They are great wooded regions already producing many articles of commerce, and containing more kinds of valuable timber and a greater variety of useful plants than can be found on any other whole continent. These forests are more accessible than any others, for the mighty Amazon with its branches and their tributaries provides twenty thousand miles of steamboat navigation, much of it suitable for ocean-going vessels. Logging is comparatively easy.

Along these splendid rivers one finds occasional white settlements between which, as well as on the highlands, there is a considerable Indian population. Both whites and Indians are masters of woodcraft; they stand ready to harvest from these forests and waters and send out to the markets of the world the most amazing variety of products.

But there is need for capital, for enterprise, and for organization of industry. In the near future, when the countries of the world are recovering from their financial difficulties, I am sure that the tremendous opportunities in Brazil will make a strong appeal and that the government and people of that progressive country will welcome the new era of development. While much interest will center on agriculture, fruit growing, stock raising, manufacturing, and mining, it would seem that the forests constitute one of the greatest and most promising and at the same time one of the least developed of all its resources.

Brazil is taking steps, however, to safeguard her forest wealth before it is destroyed. This is something that no other great country has ever done. The countries of Europe, North America, and Asia either have gone through or are rapidly completing a process of destroying their forests, with the consequent necessity of replacing them at great cost and after tremendous damage has been done. Brazil hopes to avoid, at least in large part, such economic disaster.

In a country larger than the United States we should naturally expect to find districts where tree growth is slow. In the regions of deficient and irregular rainfall trees are stunted, and oftentimes the forest merges into *cerrada* or chaparral. Again it may assume the form of *catinga* or scattered, open growth. Among the four thousand and more species of timber trees of Brazil, we should expect also to

find some that naturally are of slow growth, and some there are indeed that take a long time to mature.

On the whole, however, tree growth in Brazil is rapid. Forests quickly cover denuded areas unless soil erosion has been excessive. Frequently the second growth is not inferior to the original forest in composition. It must be borne in mind also that Brazil lies mainly within the tropics; that the climate is mild with a long growing season; that the rainfall is about double that of the United States; and that, since winds do not seem to be strong over most of the Brazilian forests, evaporation is not excessive. Such conditions are, of course, favorable to rapid growth.



Photograph by Wm. T. Cox.

#### MIXED HARDWOOD FOREST.

In the uplands south of the Amazon in the State of Pará are splendid hardwood forests averaging 50,000 feet per acre.

While fire has been the means used to clear or "deadend" the forest in the destructive, migratory system of agriculture long practiced in eastern Brazil, great conflagrations or sweeping forest fires such as we have in the northern hemisphere are practically unknown. The heavier stands of timber are essentially safe from fire unless they are purposely prepared for burning. There are no snow-slide channels on the mountain sides. Sleet storms do not occur to break the branches and wreck the forest as they do in northern climes. Frost cracks do not open up the tree trunks to fungus spores.

Fungus diseases and destructive insects, especially ants, are numerous and under warm and moist conditions develop rapidly. On the other hand, a great number of the tree species are remarkably

resistant to insects and disease, some being among the most durable woods in the world. Much of this freedom from injury is accounted for by the presence of protective oils and gums in the wood and bark.

It must be said also that the balance of nature is still well maintained in most of this forest country. Armadillos and other anteaters help powerfully to keep the chief insect enemy in check. Myriads of birds seek their favorite food on leaf and branch and tree trunk. At twilight bats by the million take off to gorge on night-flying beetles.

Most of the forests of Brazil are composed of a great many species of trees. Some of these are very valuable, others provide wood of high or ordinary quality for construction purposes, while still others are suitable only for box lumber, ties, poles, and paper. Among the more valuable cabinet woods may be mentioned jacarandá (rosewood), embuia, macaúba, andiroba, muirapiranga, saboarana, pau rainha, gongalo alves, ipê, pau roxo, angelim rajado, acapurana, tatajuba, canella parda, angico, muiracutiará, pau santo, pau violeta, and vinhatico.

Somewhat less valuable than the foregoing, but still of high quality as lumber, are the following species: peroba rosa, peroba de campo, cedro, cedro roxo, jequitibá, acapú, sucupira, pau setim, jatobá, massaranduba, itauba, brauna, freijo, guaruba, angelim pedra, cumarú, jarana, cupiuba, piquia, pau mulato, bicuíba, cacunda, oiticica, aderno, araçá, óleo pardo, óleo vermelho and several other oleos, sapucaia, cabiuna, various canellas, arocira, jatahy, louro (several species), pau ferro, castanha, copahyba and pinho (Paraná pine). There are hundreds of others in this class, most of them somewhat less common than the species named. Samples of these and other Brazilian woods are in the collection I brought back from South America and are on the shelves of my den where I write this. They have been admired by hundreds of persons interested in fine hardwoods.

Of soft, light species there are a great many, most of them white, yellow, or light brown in color, but only a few of them merit special mention. Balsa is the lightest wood in the world, while marupa, para-para, tamanqueira, esponja, arara-fofa, and maratata make excellent box lumber. The imbauba, a tree with light, soft wood, is widely spread over Brazil. It suggests the poplar of the Northern Hemisphere and furnishes the favorite food of that strange creature the sloth.

A number of the States as well as the Federal Government have established small experiment stations where trees, both native and exotic, are being tried out under different conditions and for different purposes. The Jardim Botânico at Rio de Janeiro and the plantations at the Serviço Florestal at Gavea nearby together constitute a splendid arboretum. At Razende between Rio and São Paulo is another forestry station which we were able to have enlarged; from



the work being carried on there, some valuable facts should soon be ascertained. This, like the Botanical Garden and the Gavea headquarters of the Forest Service, are Federal projects. Some of the more important points where the States are conducting experiments are at São Paulo, Campinas and Piracicaba in the State of São Paulo; at Viçosa and Bello Horizonte in Minas Geraes; at Curytiba in Paraná; at Porto Alegre in Rio Grande do Sul; and at Belem in Pará.

JARDIM BOTANICO,  
RIO DE JANEIRO.

The beautiful Botanical Garden, with its innumerable variety of plant life, is justly famous as one of the finest in the world.



Courtesy of Raoul d'Eea.

The greatest tree planting work done in Brazil, indeed one of the most interesting projects of its kind anywhere, is that carried on by the Paulista Railroad under the able direction of Dr. Navarro de Andrade. The large and fine plantations of eucalyptus, where more than 60 species have been established, not only are profitable to the company but are proving highly valuable as demonstration plantings. The facts determined in these plantations by Dr. Andrade are going to



be of immense value to thousands of planters throughout the *campo* region of southern and south-central Brazil.

It must be remembered that practically all of the coal used in Brazil is imported from England and that no oil fields have yet been developed in the country. Most of the railroads and factories therefore use wood for fuel. In fact the national consumption of fuel wood, both directly and in the form of charcoal, is enormous. Thus it is readily seen that the establishment of quick-growing woodlots and forest plantations, adapted to the climate of the *campos* and



Photograph by Wm. T. Cox.

#### BURITY PALMS.

These stately palms of the *cerrada* or chaparral region of Goyaz in Central Brazil are but one of the hundreds of varieties native to the country.

resistant to ants and other insects of the region, is of more than ordinary importance.

In a short article it manifestly would be impossible to describe in detail one's impressions as to the kind of silvicultural treatment likely to be called for in the many types of forest growing under different climatic conditions over so vast a country.

The crying need is for the building up of a profitable timber industry. With favorable legislation, standardization of products, agreement as to nomenclature, and provision for a reasonable system of inspection, this would naturally follow. For a time work in the woods will have to follow lines of least resistance. Later on more advanced management will be possible. Selection cutting will have to be largely

practiced in much of the more complex forest. On the other hand, I saw many tracts of magnificent timber in the Amazon Valley where the bulk of the stand consisted of "merchantable species" and where logging operations would be at least as simple as in our southern hardwoods.

Forestry in Brazil for the present is largely a matter of establishing National Forests and safeguarding them against destruction by uncontrolled "fire farmers." With the beginning of settlement in the Valley of the Amazon there is danger that the forests there may suffer the same fate that befell so much of the splendid original timber in Eastern Brazil. There the ancient custom of girdling and firing a few acres each year, cropping the new land for a year or two and then abandoning it only to repeat the operation on a new piece of the virgin forest, has resulted in wasting tens of millions of acres of the finest timber in the world. On this account I strongly urged the establishment of huge National and State Forests and outlined quite a number of such projects in certain of the better timbered portions of the Amazon basin. In such areas settlement is to be prohibited and forest destruction prevented.

In much of the forest country in Brazil the by-products of the forest are as important as the timber itself. Probably in no other country are these so-called by-products so abundant, so varied, and so valuable. I shall mention only a few of the more important.

First of all comes rubber. I put this first because it is so widely distributed and has played so important a part in the economy of Brazil. *Hevea Brasiliensis*, the tree from which rubber is obtained, grows throughout most of the Amazon basin. Although it seldom forms pure stands, in some districts it constitutes a considerable part of the forest. The tree varies in the quantity and quality of the latex (or milk) produced, some localities producing much better than others and some individual trees being far above the average. At Henry Ford's plantation on the Rio Tapajos which I inspected in 1930, as well as at other points where experiments were under way or contemplated, the possibilities of developing a superior strain of *Hevea* were discussed with the managers.

It is my impression that rubber production will be considerably affected not only by the propagation, in plantations, of trees yielding more and better latex, but by the regrowth of the former industry of gathering native wild rubber. This industry is suffering now because of the low price of rubber. At present prices it cannot be maintained as an industry by itself, since it cannot sustain the workers needed in the woods. With the upbuilding of kindred industries—the collection of other forest products to help hold the population in the producing territory—conditions might easily change and rubber be produced throughout the Amazon valley at very low cost and in enormous quantities.



Photograph by Wm. T. Cox.

A CASTANHA (BRAZIL NUT) DEPOT IN PARA.

The collection of these nuts provides employment for many thousands in northern Brazil; the trees grow extensively in the States of Pará, Amazonas, and Matto Grosso.

The collection of castanhas or Brazil nuts is for the present the most active industry of Northern Brazil. Thousands of families earn a livelihood gathering these nuts and the somewhat similar ones known as sapucaias. It is dangerous work under present conditions, for the castanha trees bear the big *cascas* in which the nuts grow at a hundred feet above the ground. When these heavy cases fall it is well to be out from under. The nut gatherers commonly work the forest for only a short distance back from the rivers, partly because of easier transportation and partly to avoid contact with the Indians. The castanha tree occurs singly and in groups or small groves throughout most of the States of Pará, Matto Grosso, and Amazonas and, to a lesser extent, in some of the other States. The proper management of these forests would mean that the harvest of Brazil nuts, which even now is no mean industry, might be increased many fold.

Scattered through the forest and abundant in certain types and districts are innumerable palms. These greatly enhance the beauty of the forest and give a tropical touch to scenery that otherwise would suggest the temperate zone. There are hundreds of kinds of palms. Some of them are mere shrubs or vines; others, like the stately buriti, look down on the leafy canopy that crowns the hardwood forest, itself composed of giant trees. Many of these palms are useful in a high degree. They will need to be considered carefully in silvicultural practices to be applied.



The carnaúba palm produces the carnaúba wax and supports a large part of the population in the work of gathering and preparing this product. The tucum palm is a fiber plant of great promise; cordage and fish lines made of tucum fiber show astounding strength. A large territory in the States of Maranhao, Pará, and Goyaz contains this useful plant in abundance. The babassú palm, native in a vast region from northeastern to central Brazil, produces rich oil nuts in such quantities and under such favorable conditions as to suggest an early revolutionary change in the vegetable oil industry of the world. The assahy, a slender, graceful palm, bears a fruit from which is made an iced dish, of attractive color and flavor, rapidly gaining in popularity.



Photograph by Wm. T. Cox.

#### LOADING BABASSÚ NUTS ON THE COAST OF MARANHÃO.

The annual export of these rich oil nuts has ranged from 14,000 to 26,000 tons for several years.

Where the Paraná pine forests are logged, a suppressed understory of *ilex* quickly develops into a productive source of maté or "Paraguay tea." The harvesting of this crop gives employment to a large part of the rural population of southern Brazil, and the product seems to be in ever greater demand.

One might go on to enumerate and describe a lengthy list of other by-products—gums, oils, vegetable ivory, dyes, medicines, hides and furs of wild animals, reptile skins, and fishes. But the list, if even comparatively complete, would be altogether too long. All of these products and many more must be reckoned with in Brazilian silviculture. It is going to be a fascinating task for the forester, whether in the valley of the Amazon or in central or southern Brazil, to work out



and apply methods of forest treatment that will give due consideration to the perpetuation of the better kinds of timber and at the same time maintain and increase the output of these other worthwhile products. One-crop forestry, like one-crop agriculture, is losing out in all parts of the world. Certainly diversified forestry is clearly indicated in Brazil.

During my travels in 1929, 1930, and 1931 I saw much of the beautiful mountain and valley and campo country of Brazil. I traversed the valley of the Amazon and appreciated as a forester should the magnificent forests along this mighty river and its great tributaries as well as on the uplands between them. I rejoiced to see the southern extension of these same forests on the highlands of Matto Grosso and Goyaz with their beautiful scenery, delightful climate, and abundant and interesting wild life. In fact, I saw just enough of of that rich and wonderful country to make me envious of the future foresters of Brazil.



# THE OLIVEIRA LIMA COLLECTION

By ALEXANDER DE ARMOND MARCHANT, M.A.

OF the many libraries in the city of Washington, those of particular interest to both the Latin American visitor and the student of Latin American history are the collections in the Library of Congress relating to matters Pan American, the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union itself, and the Oliveira Lima Collection at the Catholic University of America.

The Lima Collection—or the Ibero-American Library, as it is sometimes known—was the gift of the distinguished Brazilian scholar and diplomat, Dr. Manoel de Oliveira Lima, to the Catholic University of America. When Dr. Lima was a schoolboy in Portugal at the age of fifteen, he began a lifelong work of collecting books. His tastes lay principally in the fields of the history and the literature of Brazil, so that the bulk of the books which he later acquired, as represented in the present collection, dealt chiefly with those two subjects. It was impossible, however, for him to restrict his interest to Brazil alone. Certain factors in European and American history which influenced the development of Brazil made imperative a considerable literature on the history and cultural background of the Old World and the New, with the result that Dr. Lima eventually built up around his nucleus of books on Brazil a subsidiary library of a more general nature.

Dr. Lima's travels during his years in the diplomatic service of Brazil brought clearly to him the conviction that Brazil must become better known to the world in general and to the rest of America in particular. Accordingly, in 1912, the year of his resignation from the diplomatic service, he wrote to one of his friends in the United States, the Right Reverend Bishop Shahan, then the rector of the Catholic University of America, and expressed the wish of giving his collection to that University. The purpose of such a gift was evident. Dr. Lima, an admirer of the United States, wished to establish in North America a center from which knowledge of Brazil and of its people might easily be disseminated, and, for this purpose, he knew of no better means than a library. The project, expressed at that time as a simple wish, remained indefinite until 1916, when Dr. Lima wrote again to Dr. Shahan and reiterated the substance of his first communication.

A period of travel by Dr. Lima intervened, until he finally gravitated to Washington and took up permanent residence there. Sur-



Courtesy of the Catholic University of America.

#### MULLEN LIBRARY IN WHICH THE LIMA COLLECTION IS HOUSED.

Upper: The Mullen Library in which the Ibero-American library of Manoel de Oliviera Lima has been installed, is one of the newer buildings in the group comprising the Catholic University. Lower: This reading room contains a small portion of the approximately 40,000 volumes, together with some of the paintings and sculptures which the collection includes.



rounded once more by his books, he again opened negotiations with Dr. Shahan, which, in 1924, one year after Dr. Lima's appointment to the chair of international law at the University, culminated in the formal bestowal of his entire collection upon the Catholic University of America. The purpose was simply to make better known to the people of the United States the history, the culture, and the intellectual attitude of the people of Brazil, and, incidentally, to establish a nucleus around which eventually to construct a species of institute concerned solely with the relations of the Americas. The gift itself was made under only two conditions: the one being that the collection would always be maintained intact and as a unit, the other that Dr. Lima would be the librarian during his lifetime. The trustees of the University hastened to accept so noble a gift so simply made, and, after March 1924, installed the collection in one of the buildings of the University. When the Mullen Library was completed on the campus, the entire Lima Collection was transferred to separate quarters in the new building, where it is at present located. Since the death of Dr. Lima in 1928, his wife has directed the collection, but, during the absence of Senhora Lima in Europe, it has been in the capable care of the assistant librarian, Mr. Paul A. McNeil, M.A.

The Lima Collection consists of the library, on the one hand, and of a considerable aggregation of paintings, engravings, and art objects, on the other. For the purposes of description, the library itself may be divided again into three parts, namely, the library proper, the periodical collection, and the rare book collection.

It is impossible in so small a compass even to begin a description of so extended and rich a collection. Some eighteen stacks, for instance, contain shelf after shelf of volumes of a general nature relating to subjects as diverse as philosophy, Latin authors represented in text and commentary, and European history and literature as contained in memoirs and historical works.

The history of Spain takes four cases, while the history of Portugal, as set forth by its major and minor historians, occupies five. Books discussing the relations of Portugal and Brazil are distributed according to their treatment between this Portuguese section and the purely Brazilian one. Portuguese literature is represented in a surprising richness from before the time of Camões to the present century. Every important author is present in one form or another, the more famous often in several editions, while the novelists of the nineteenth century appear in a veritable galaxy.

The history of the Latin American countries other than Brazil is contained in eleven stacks, and is set forth in pamphlets as well as in longer works. Each country is to be found treated by its own historians insofar as possible, with considerable collateral material from foreign sources nearby. The range of subject matter is necessarily



broad, reaching from national biography to general works embracing the entire history of a nation or a people.

The greatest importance of the Lima Collection is to the student of Brazilian history, who finds there several thousand volumes dealing either directly or indirectly with every period of Brazilian history and culture in general, many in original editions unprocurable elsewhere in the United States. The student will benefit continually from the

### LIMB PRAESESIO



A RARE VOLUME OF  
1507.

The oldest volume in the Lima collection is an extremely valuable book printed in Venice which includes a record of the voyage of Pedro Alvares Cabral resulting in the discovery of Brazil.

instructed taste and scholarly choice of Dr. Lima, who subjected all that had been written on Brazil to a critical and thoughtful examination in order to determine exactly which books represented the best work and the best thought in the field. The standard works on the majority of the phases of Brazilian history are therefore to be found as a matter of course. Beside them (and it is this which makes the library so important in North America) are less important collateral texts little known outside of Brazil, records from the archives of

various States and municipalities, and some two hundred volumes on the laws and codes of Brazil, all of which serve to render the student conscious of many subtle historical and cultural nuances not otherwise perceptible.

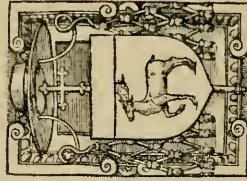
As far as Brazilian literature is concerned, it is impossible to think of any Brazilian man of letters whose work is not to be found in one form or another. Whether one wishes to examine the fine *Escola Mineira* of the eighteenth century, or the *indianismo* of Gonçalves Dias, or the *parnasianismo* of Olavo Bilac, one is sure to find some specimen of the selected author's work on the shelves. The standard critics of Brazilian literature stand in a group on an upper shelf to act as guides for the reader through the wealth of material on every hand.

The periodical collection, which includes newspapers and magazines principally from Brazil and Portugal, is not without interest. There are complete sets of Portuguese liberal reviews of that interesting period of Portuguese history, the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The *Correio Brasiliense*, commencing in 1808, is one of the outstanding items referring specifically to Brazil in its late colonial period. Many historical and scientific bodies are represented by their reviews and a great number of more general Latin American magazines are present in broken sets.

The rare book collection is one of great interest. It contains a few over two hundred volumes, ranging in date from the beginning of the sixteenth to the beginning of the twentieth centuries, some museum pieces of the highest order, both from the scarcity of the edition and the fine state of preservation. The oldest volume is the *Paesi nouamente retrouati* of Montalboddo, printed in 1507, that scarce and exceedingly valuable book which tells of the voyage of Alvares Cabral resulting in the discovery of Brazil. Damião de Goes is to be found three times: once, in his famous work, published in 1540, on the faith, religion, and customs of Ethiopia, again in his *Chronica do Felicissimo Rei Dom Emanuel*, printed in 1566, and yet again, a year later, in his chronicle of Prince João. The most famous French accounts of Brazil made in the sixteenth century are both in the collection. Thevet's *Singularitez de la France Antarctique* is of the edition of 1558 and Jean de Lery's *Histoire d'un voyage fait en la Terre du Bresil*, written during his stay in Brazil during Villegaignon's occupation of Guanabara Bay, is of the extremely scarce first edition of 1578. The *Lusiadas* of the unparalleled Camões is to be found in the fourth edition (Lisbon, 1597) and the fifth (Lisbon, 1609). His complete works, in later Portuguese reprints or in English and French translations, together with biographies and commentaries, are to be found elsewhere in the library in some fifteen different editions.

# LES SINGULARI- TEZ DE LA FRAN- CE ANTARCTIQUE, A V- trement nommée Amérique, & de plusieurs Terres & Îles de- couvertes de notre temps.

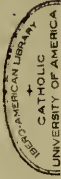
Par *E. André Thouet, natif d'Angoulême.*



A PARIS,  
Chez les héritiers de Maurice de la Porte, au Clos  
Bruneau, à l'enſeigne S. Claude.

1558.

AVEC PRIVILEGE DV ROY.



## BOOKS ON BRAZILIAN HISTORY.

Left: This is an admirable copy, bound by Lortie Press, of the work by a French Fran-  
ciscan monk, who accompanied Villégaignon  
to Brazil in 1555. Right: This book is so rare  
that when the President of Portugal wished  
to present a copy to the President of Brazil,  
on the occasion of his visit to that republic in  
1922, special permission had to be obtained  
from Congress for the book to be taken out of  
the country.

# VIDA DO VENERAVEL PADRE IOSEPH DE ANCHIETA

DA COMPANHIA DE IESV. TAVMATVRGO  
do Nouo Mundo, na Prouincia do Brasil.

C O M P O S T A

Pello P. SIMAM DE VASCONCELLOS, da  
meſma Companhia, Lente de Prima na ſagrada Theo-  
logia, & Prouincial que foi na meſma Prouincia,  
natural da Cidade do Porto.

DEDICADA AO CORONEL

FRANCISCO GIL D'ARAVIO



EM LISBOA.

Na Officina de IOAN DA COSTA.

M. DC. LXXII.

Com todas as licenças neceſſarias.

Among the seventeenth century books are a number of rare Dutch pamphlets and books relating to the Dutch occupation of Pernambuco during the period of the Spanish dominion of Portugal. One lot refers to the military exploits of the Dutch around Olinda, while another, made up of about a score of exceedingly scarce pamphlets on the subject, gives a tremendous amount of contemporary information on the Dutch West Indies Co., which was so intimately connected with the Brazilian enterprises of Maurice of Nassau-Siegen. Nassau-

RARE BOOK OF THE  
XVII CENTURY.

José Carlos Rodrigues, in his work entitled *Biblioteca Brasiliense*, says that the Spaniards destroyed most of the copies of this book, which relates the first part of the war between the Portuguese and the Dutch in Pernambuco. The author, Duarte de Albuquerque Coelho, although born in Portugal, allied himself with Spain after the separation of the two kingdoms (1640), which may explain the reason why this notable volume was printed in Spanish.

1728  
**MEMORIAS DIARIAS  
DE LA GVERRA DEL BRASIL,  
POR DISCVRSO DE NVEVE**

AÑOS, EMPEÇANDO DESDE EL  
DE M. DC. XXX.

ESCRITAS

POR DVARTE DE ALBVRQVERQVE COELLO,  
Marques de Baito, Conde, i Señor de Pernambuco, i de las  
Villas de Olinda, San Francisco, Magdalena, Buen-Sucesso,  
Villahermosa, i Igaracù, Gentil-hombre de la Camara de  
su Magestad, i de su Consejo de Estado, en el  
de Portugal.

A LA CATOLICA MAGESTAD DEL REY  
DON FELIPE QVARTO.



CON PRIVILEGIO:

En Madrid, por Diego Diaz de la Carrera, Impresor del Reyno, Año 1654.

Siegen himself is portrayed in the panegyric labors of Barlaeus, or Gaspar van Baerle, *Rerum per octennium*, which occurs in three different editions in the Lima Collection, including the *rarissime* colored edition of 1647, illustrated by Franz Post. A third section, and one of great historical value, is that made up of Portuguese accounts of the same occupation of Pernambuco, the most notable being that by Duarte de Albuquerque Coelho, *Memorias Diarias de la Guerra del Brasil* (Madrid, 1654).



Of the eighteenth century, specimens are more plentiful, but few are of more interest than two volumes of poetry by two Brazilians involved in the Conspiracy of Minas of 1789. One is the first edition (Coimbra, 1768) of a collection of the sonnets of Dr. Claudio Manoel da Costa, the dean of the literary men in Minas at the time, and the other is a copy of *Marília de Dirceu*, by his friend and contemporary, Thomaz Antonio Gonzaga, in the phenomenally scarce first edition of 1792 (Lisbon).

To the visitor the aggregation of paintings, engravings, and art objects which make up the balance of the collection is perhaps of most striking interest. A large oil painting of D. Pedro II and another of D. João VI, of whom there are also two portrait busts, dominate the lesser exhibits in one of the reading rooms, while in another scores of autographed photographs of the leading men and women of many countries confront several cases of coins and curiosities. Some magnificent engraved Dutch portraits of his followers hang upon a wall near an excellent head of Maurice of Nassau-Siegen, whose autograph appears on a letter immediately beneath. The flag which flew from the Brazilian consulate in New York upon the occasion of the visit of D. Pedro II to the United States is in one room, and upon the wall of the next is a reproduction worked in silk of the original banner of the *Revolução pernambucana* of 1817.

It would be difficult to discover a collection better fitted for Dr. Lima's purpose than the Lima Library. Here, in one group, are some thirty thousand odd volumes, the majority of which deal either directly or indirectly with all phases of Brazilian life, and which have been considered by more than one bibliographer the best private library of its type in the Americas, and the finest collection of Brazilian and Portuguese literature outside of Brazil or Portugal. Close by are the Library of Congress and the Library of the Pan American Union. The three together offer a combination for the study of Brazilian life and history which is probably unequalled in any other part of the world outside of Brazil itself. The Lima Collection stands today as a magnificent gesture from a fine Brazilian scholar to the scholars of America and as a distinct forward step in the cultural relations of Brazil and the United States.





HIS EXCELLENCY GEN. MAXIMILIANO HERNÁNDEZ MARTÍNEZ, CONSTITUTIONAL  
PRESIDENT OF EL SALVADOR.

By a decree of February 4, 1932, the National Assembly declared that since the 4th of the preceding December, Gen. Maximiliano Hernández Martínez, the Vice President elected by popular vote, had been constitutional President of the Republic, and conferred on him the attributes of office until the expiration of the constitutional term, 1931-35.



DR. MIGUEL PAZ BARAONA, ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF HONDURAS IN THE UNITED STATES.

## DR. MIGUEL PAZ BARAONA THE NEW MINISTER OF HONDURAS IN THE UNITED STATES

**D**R. MIGUEL PAZ BARAONA, the eminent Honduran physician and surgeon recently appointed Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Honduras in the United States, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt at the White House on June 12, 1933.

The new Minister of Honduras was born in the city of Santa Barbara in 1863. He was sent to Guatemala at the age of 11 to complete his education, and there took degrees in arts and in medicine. He interrupted his professional career to devote himself to agriculture in order that, as the eldest of a large family, he might help educate his younger brothers. Once this had been accomplished, he turned his attention once more to medicine and established a clinic at San Pedro Sula. His interest in his chosen field led to further study abroad—in New York in 1892 and 1901, in London in 1906, and in Paris in 1907 and 1923.

Dr. Paz Baraona has an international reputation as a specialist in tropical diseases; he had advanced in his research to such a point that, some time before the Rockefeller Foundation began its work in tropical countries, he had conducted, on a small scale but very successfully, a vigorous campaign in his native land against malaria and parasitic intestinal diseases.

In addition to his brilliant scientific career, Dr. Paz Baraona has also played a prominent role in political life. After serving as mayor and Deputy to the National Congress, he was elected President of the Republic in 1924 and held the office for the 4-year term beginning February 1, 1925.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union now counts two former presidents among its members. Besides Dr. Paz Baraona, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, the present Minister of Panama, was president of his country from January 1931 to October 1932.



# MEXICO'S ROADS

By WILLIAM HARRISON FURLONG

*Manager, Highway Department, Chamber of Commerce of San Antonio*

TWO years and four months have passed since the blasting away of the last impediment to motor communication on that sector of the Pan American Highway which lies between Laredo, Tex., and the City of Mexico. A record-breaking achievement it was which for sheer courage, tenacity of purpose, and indomitable will has never been surpassed by any nation. This particular sector—a single unit of the great system of modern highways which, by a decree issued in 1925 by Gen. Plutarco Elias Calles (then President of the Republic), were to span his native land from the United States border to the frontier of Guatemala and from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific Ocean—presented difficulties of such extreme severity that the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the engineers assigned to this gigantic task were taxed to the utmost. Herculean though it was and fraught with every possible hazard, these intrepid men responded to the call with an ardor and earnestness which since has elicited the admiration and encomiastic comment of the entire scientific world.

No time was lost in putting into motion the vast machinery necessary for this major endeavor. Large sums of money were appropriated, every type of modern road-building equipment adapted to the existing conditions was purchased, preliminary reconnaissance perfected, and a program which was to change the economic structure of Mexico launched without ostentation. Centering its activities, for obvious reasons, in the areas adjacent to the Mexican capital, the work under the able supervision of the newly created body known as the Comisión Nacional de Caminos (Federal Highway Commission) made remarkable progress; the great roads to Puebla and Pachuca were built, and the construction of various other units of importance was begun. Then the eyes of the Mexican government were turned northward to the United States of America, to an English-speaking people, a real knowledge of whom was possessed to but a limited degree by the average Mexican.

Perhaps no announcement, regardless of its import, ever made by the Republic of Mexico has been received by the people of the United States as a whole with so much fervor and genuine interest as that indicating the early construction of a modern motorway to be part of that highway which will eventually connect the two Americas.

From the standpoint of the motoring fraternity, a new Mecca was about to be made available. To the nation at large it meant that Mexico was swinging into her own.

From 1519, the year which marks the introduction of horses and wheeled vehicles by the Great Captain, Hernán Cortés, down to the present era, Mexico has been confronted with the problem of transportation. It is true that the building of roads was first attempted in that early year by Spanish missionaries, who, in their efforts to bring civilization to the Indian races, realized the imperative need of transportation facilities. Because of the lack of adequate finances,



THE MEXICO CITY-LAREDO HIGHWAY.

Work is progressing rapidly on the last sections which, when completed, will give the motorist a paved all-weather highway from the United States border to the Mexican capital.

proper equipment, and engineering skill, however, little more than trails crowned the efforts of those indefatigable pioneers.

Notable exceptions were found in some of the more densely populated regions whose conformation was less formidably rugged and where the artisan was permitted to exercise without reserve his skill in the construction of bridges, the laying of cobblestone roadways, and the geometrical mosaic arrangement of pebbles so frequently observed in the urban districts. The old Spanish bridges at Puebla and Cuernavaca and the cobbles in the State of Morelos, exceptional examples of this artistry, are today found to be in a remarkable state of preservation. This desultory form of highway activities continued down the centuries.

Practically impoverished following the years of conflict with Spain, whose domination was overthrown in 1821, the Mexican Government was forced not only to abandon all plans for a roadbuilding program, but to discontinue even the maintenance of such primitive roads as remained. It was about this time that the invention of the steam engine was announced. Aroused as it had never been before in the matter of transportation needs, the continued lack of which would, it was argued, ultimately result in the demolition of this marvelous country, the government took a most heroic stand. Mexico was rich beyond all conception in her deposits of gold, silver, copper, semiprecious stones, and vast areas of commercial granite, and had almost countless acres of arable lands endowed by nature with a soil that in fertility and productivity rivaled the world-famed Valley of the Nile. It was realized by the thinking men of that day that with proper transportation facilities and successful exploitation of these storehouses of fabulous wealth, there would be rendered available the vast sums of money required for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of an almost bankrupt country. That a railroad system was built at tremendous cost is a matter of record, that it played a major part in the development of the country is accepted; but it was not enough. Every available resource, however, had been exhausted in the meeting of the exigencies of the railroad. The development of a system of highways, even though the need was so poignantly felt, was, because of the stern mandate of necessity, to be the heritage of another generation.

Then came the World War and with it was born in the United States a greater realization of the scope and benefits to be derived from a scientific highway system. Action was immediate; local enthusiasm rose to its peak, local road committees were formed and local bond issues floated; next the States took a hand; then under the provisions of the Federal Aid Act of November 9, 1928, the government was brought into the vast compact, the operation of which involved the expenditure of tens of millions of dollars.

That the launching of a campaign of such gigantic proportions should produce a worldwide effect was but natural. Countries which, for obvious reasons, had given but a passing consideration to highway construction, suddenly became alert and conscious of their needs. Mexico was the first of the powers to the south of the United States to respond. A sane well-balanced plan was announced; its accomplishment has made history in the world of highway construction.

How well this great work has progressed since its inception is a matter of record. After the first units radiating from the capital had been finished, the next step was to direct the completion of the Mexico City-Laredo section of the Pan American Highway. With



characteristic zeal and precision the forces were moved to this sector, and thousands of men assigned to this major task. Divided into two units—one to the south working north, the other to the north pressing toward the south—toiling, struggling, sweating, they blazed the way. Clinging like flies to precipitous mountainsides where a false move meant destruction, they laid the blasting fuse; step by step came the semblance of a roadway—a mere shell, to be sure, a gash in the mountainside but wide enough to bear a car, a truck, a convoy of equipment. To the northward, in the State of San Luis Potosí, lay the valley between Tamazunchale and Valles; it was an area of devastating tropical heat, poisonous stinging insects, deadly reptiles, dread malaria, and unpotable water, a jungle fastness through



Photograph by William Harrison Furlong.

A BRIDGE ON THE INTERAMERICAN HIGHWAY.

This bridge is typical of the many that have been constructed along the Mexico City-Laredo section.

which a roadway was to be hacked by the native machete and the woodman's ax. Myriads of stumps awaited the blasting crews, for here as well as in the mountains, dynamite was used, tons upon tons of it; it was the quickest method, and time counted. Then came the bridge workers. In August 1930 the writer made a count of 93 provisional bridges or culverts which had been hastily thrown up in the swamp area between Valles and Tancanhuitz, a distance of some 50 kilometers (31 miles). Small as they were and frail as they seemed, the bamboo of which they were constructed met the requirements and did the work—it held. In June 1931 all but one of these temporary structures had been replaced by enduring masses of concrete, masonry, and steel.



Day by day the distance between the two great forces lessened. One more mile blazed, one more bridge built, one more river crossed—they were coming together. At last they met, these two armies of courageous engineers and men, in April 1931. It was a great day for Mexico; a celebration was staged, and scores of high government officials, engineers, and newspaper men made the trip to the designated point near Chapulhuacán. It was a nerve-racking, hair-raising, heart-rending experience to the majority of those who attended the event; more than one—after witnessing the never-to-be-forgotten spectacle of hundreds of tons of rock being blown to the four points



Photograph by William Harrison Furlong.

#### THE MEXICO CITY-GUADALAJARA ROUTE.

A much-needed highway from the capital to Guadalajara is another major road project scheduled for completion by 1936.

of the compass by one gigantic blast, thus removing the last impediment to communication between the two areas—elected to return, not by the route whence they had come, but via the little city of Valles, the nearest railroad connection, and for good reason. One trip was enough, with the car winding, slipping, and sliding over a narrow trail, with precipitous drops of hundreds of feet, with no guard rail to arrest skidding, with no chance for a possible approaching car to pass—no chance, in fact, for anything but disaster if the drivers displayed for one instant an attack of nerves. Yet the world had been waiting for this event, and to the world was flashed, “The road is open to Mexico City.”



Photograph by William Harrison Furlong.

PATIO IN HOTEL AT ZITACUARO, MICHOACÁN.

Ample provision for the motorist's comfort is being made in connection with the country's road-building program.

True, the way was clear; the last barrier had been removed and vehicular communication established; Mexico had done a good job. But in the splendid zeal to give publicity to this remarkable achievement, one essential point was overlooked—that of explaining to the millions of people who had read about it exactly what the facts were, just what conditions would be encountered in a journey through what has been so aptly characterized as the “magnificent Alps of Mexico.”

It was clear to those who were familiar with the subject that dependable information concerning the highway should be gathered and disseminated at once. It seemed that motoring America, in the belief that a finished motorway existed from the United States border at Laredo, Tex., to the Mexican capital, was about to descend en masse to the southern country. The idea of such a trip was new, and caught the popular fancy. Letters and telegrams were being received by the highway department of the San Antonio Chamber of Commerce from every part of the United States. Newspapers, automobile clubs, travel bureaus, magazines, and individuals alike were seeking dependable advice. In order to deal promptly and accurately with these inquiries, the directors of the department decided that an inspection of this route should be made without delay. The plan

won the ready cooperation of the Mexican Federal Highway Commission, which promptly accorded the writer the full facilities and resources of that national body. Success attended this trip.

A carefully compiled log of the route was made, locations of all hazards were established, points of supplies (gasoline, oil, water, provisions, etc.), hotels and other sleeping accommodations, and telegraph and telephone services listed, and complete descriptions of the road surfaces submitted. Following the release of these data, the recommendation offered to tourists and to the traveling public in general by the department—a recommendation which received the approval of the Mexican authorities—was that motor travel be postponed until such a time as the dangers incident to travel over an unfinished mountainous road such as has just been described, should be eliminated.

The highway department of the San Antonio Chamber of Commerce was the first American organization to enter the Republic of Mexico for the purpose of making a careful study of the progress being made in its road-building program. The initial report made some six years ago, which included the routes to Puebla, Pachuca, and Acapulco on the Pacific side, and others since published of other routes, have been accepted as dependable, as is evidenced by the wide recognition accorded them by major newspapers and disseminating agencies throughout the United States. Because of the cordial relations enjoyed with the Mexican Federal Highway Commission, whose frequent communications are received by the department, and because of the writer's personal knowledge of conditions as they exist, it has been possible to release from time to time reports which have been of material aid to agencies engaged in meeting the requirements of the traveler.

The obstacles which beset the Federal Commission in the prosecution of this great project were enough to have disheartened a less courageous people; however, the work has gone on and is still going on. On April 29, 1933, a mighty impetus was given the endeavor by the signing of a contract involving 38,000,000 pesos; it had been awarded to a Mexican company whose representative is C. Ing. Camilo Figueroa. With this vast sum available, immediate attention has been directed to three major projects: Nueva Laredo-Mexico City, Mexico City-Acapulco, Mexico City-Guadalajara; they total 1,418 miles, and their completion is scheduled for the latter part of 1936.

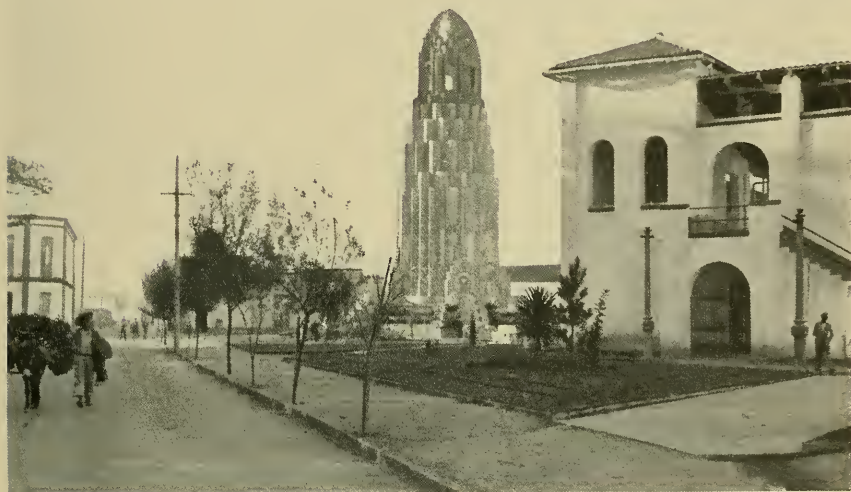
The disbursement of this sum will be made as follows: in 1933, 2,000,000 pesos; in 1934, 10,000,000; in 1935, 12,000,000; and in 1936, 14,000,000.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> These figures are official and published with the approval of Don Leopoldo Farias, Director General of the Federal Highway Commission of the Republic of Mexico.



That the Laredo-Mexico City sector of the Pan American Highway is to take precedence over the rest of these major projects is not without significance. Mexico has come to a full understanding of the imperative need of motor connection with the United States and is determined to bring about its completion at the earliest possible date. Already has the pavement been extended 198 miles south of the border at Laredo to the little city of Montemorelos, some 50 miles below Monterrey, both in Nuevo Leon; it will be continued during the year to Villagrán, a point approximately 69 miles north of Victoria, Tamaulipas. Following the completion of the gravel surfacing between Victoria and Tamazunchale, which is scheduled for Decem-



Photograph by William Harrison Furlong.

#### LABOR TEMPLE AT TOLUCA.

Toluca, in the State of Michoacán, is the present terminal of one of the shorter paved highways radiating from Mexico City.

ber 1933, attention will be directed to the widening of some of the narrower sections in the mountainous Tamazunchale-Jacala sector.

The inspection made by the writer during the early part of May 1933, showed that marked progress had been made since a similar inspection in December 1932. The enthusiasm and even fervor which characterize the efforts of the engineers in speeding the work are also conspicuous among the personnel of the construction crews, and elicited the enthusiastic comment of the members of the Texas State Highway Commission who accompanied the writer on the recent inspection of the road. Mile after mile through the construction areas the work was progressing at an amazing rate—blasting



mountain passes, hauling great loads of material, filling, leveling, sprinkling, and grading, as the road actually took shape before the astonished eyes of the distinguished visitors. They came to the belief that by the end of the rainy season (in late October or early November), a splendidly surfaced, wide, well-maintained roadway from the United States border to Tamazunchale, a distance of 395 miles, will be available for travel at high speeds in comfort and safety. It should be understood, however, that the major hazards of the route (the narrow surfaces of the roadway, often less than 10 feet in width, bordering precipitous drops of hundreds of feet in the 65-mile Tamazunchale-Jacala sector) will not have been eliminated; therefore the negotiation of this sector will require the full resourcefulness, courage, and skill of the driver attempting it.

Despite these major hazards, the trip has been made without mishap by scores of parties during the last nine months; that it will be essayed by increasing numbers of motorists impelled by the desire to experience personally the thrills accompanying such an undertaking, may be freely predicted. That the fullest information concerning supplies—gasoline, oil, water, etc.—, hotels or other sleeping accommodations, road surfaces, detours, and other data to meet the requirements of the motorist may again be available, a summer inspection of the areas under active construction will be made and followed by still another one to Mexico City in November. The details of the latter will be compiled in log and report form and released without charge to the general public.

In carrying out the gigantic road-building program launched in 1925, the men in charge have performed the tremendous task assigned to them steadfastly, courageously, and without ostentation, in accordance with the instructions of their former chief, General Calles; now, after many years of heroic endeavor, they are approaching their cherished goal.



# SOME SIXTEENTH CENTURY HISTORIES AND HISTORIANS OF AMERICA<sup>1</sup>

By A. CURTIS WILGUS

*Associate Professor of History, George Washington University*

*(Part II)*

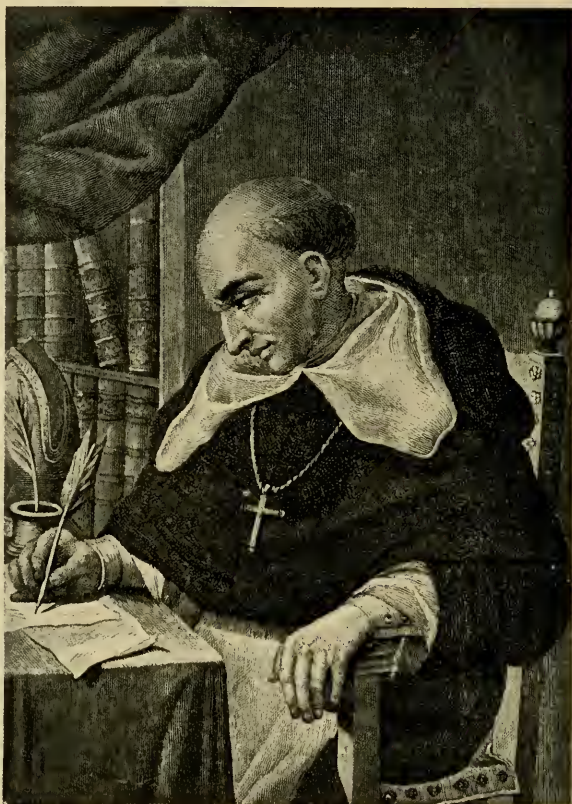
## IV

AMONG the historians of the world who have achieved wide fame justly or unjustly is always to be found Bartolomé de las Casas. Judged in the light of present-day knowledge and historical criticism his writings cannot be placed in the front rank, but he was an indefatigable writer and his works were widely translated for purposes of propaganda, particularly into the languages of countries who were in the sixteenth century the enemies of Spain. There is no doubt that he painted the Spanish colonies in a bad light. To do this he sometimes stretched the truth to the breaking point for, although a churchman, he did not scruple to turn an otherwise poor story into a good one so that he could better accomplish his chief aim of showing the Spanish king to what extent his Indian subjects in the New World were being mistreated. It was this singleness of purpose that often enabled his enthusiasm to overcome his better judgment.

A contemporary of Columbus, Las Casas was born in Seville, probably in 1474. His family was noble, and the boy received for those days an excellent education, graduating from the University of Salamanca in the year 1500. Before this date Las Casas had come into indirect relation with things American, for his father had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage in 1493 and had brought back an Indian lad to be his son's servant. This first contact with the Indies was followed two years after his graduation by an intimate one when on February 13, 1502, he left his native shores for the mysterious New World. Many times afterward he was destined to return to his homeland and to leave it again, always fighting for the cause of the oppressed natives to such an extent that he won the title of the "Apostle of the Indians."

However, when he left Spain for the first time he had an eye to wealth, and like many another Spaniard he became in America an *encomendero* and the owner of many slaves. But by 1510 he had concluded that such slavery was wrong, and from that year on he incessantly spoke, wrote, and traveled on behalf of the new cause. It

<sup>1</sup> Part I of this article appeared in the BULLETIN for July 1933.



BARTOLOMÉ DE LAS CASAS, 1474-1566.

A contemporary of Columbus, his writings dealt largely with the oppressed Indians, whom he befriended to such an extent that he was given the title of "Apostle of the Indians."



was at this time that he entered the Dominican Order. Thereupon his enthusiasm became almost a religious mania, and until his death in July, 1566, he pursued his single object. Finally in 1549 he returned to Spain, never again to leave it. There he spent his time in putting into final form the numerous manuscripts and notes which he had written.

The first and only one of Las Casas' works to be published during his lifetime was his *Brevissima relación de la destrucción de las Indias* which was printed at Seville in 1552. This, together with his *Apológica historia sumaria . . . destas Indias occidentales y meridionales*, was begun in America, perhaps in 1527, and was intended to be a part of his *Historia general*. In his will Las Casas forbade the publication of the second-named work until 40 years after his death, but despite this prohibition Herrera made extensive use of it when he was preparing his *Historia General*, which he brought out in Madrid early the next century. The same manuscript was copied by E. G. Squier and for W. H. Prescott, but it did not appear in complete form until it was published at Madrid in 1868. Las Casas' larger *Historia general de las Indias*, never completed, was not published until it was issued at Madrid in five volumes between 1875 and 1879. Although the works of this historian have been translated into many languages (the first editions being in Dutch in 1578, in French in 1579, in Latin in 1582, in Italian in 1626, and in German in 1645), none has ever been completely translated into English, except the first work, which appeared at London in 1583 under the title *The Spanish Colony, a brief chronicle of the acts and gests of the Spaniards in the West Indies called the New World for the space of XL years*. This is now an excessively rare work. More than 100 years later (1656) an English edition was entitled *The Tears of the Indians*. Another favorite English title used in the editions of 1614, 1656, 1689 was *Casas' horrid massacres, butcheries, and cruelties that hell and malice could invent committed by the Spaniards in the West Indies*. The most recent English translation and one of the best is that made by F. A. MacNutt for his one-volume life of Las Casas published in 1909.

## V

Another of the interesting and important general historians of the sixteenth century was José de Acosta, whose *Historia natural y moral de las Indias* contained much of the geographical information known in the century, together with many facts concerning the ethnology and archeology of the natives of Mexico and Peru.

Born at Medina del Campo in Castile, perhaps in the year 1540, he entered the Society of Jesus at the age of 14. With some precocity he applied himself to a mastery of history, literature, and religion, thus admirably preparing himself for his later literary



HISTORIA  
NATURAL  
Y  
MORAL DELAS  
INDIAS,

EN QUE SE TRATAN LAS COSAS  
notables del cielo, y elementos, metales, plantas, y ani-  
males dellas: y los ritos, y ceremonias, leyes, y  
gouierno, y guerras de los Indios.

*Compuesta por el Padre Ioseph de Acosta Religioso  
de la Compañia de Iesus.*

DIRIGIDA A LA SERENISSIMA  
Infanta Doña Isabella Clara Eugenia de Austria.



CON PRIVILEGIO

Impresso en Seuilla en casa de Iuan de Leon.

Año de 1590.

“HISTORIA NATURAL Y MORAL DE LAS INDIAS.”

This general history by José de Acosta, in which he dealt particularly with Peru and Mexico, ranks high among the early works of this class.

activities. When his Society undertook to occupy Peru as a spiritual province, Acosta was sent to that country. Leaving Spain in 1569, he reached Callao on April 27, 1570. On this journey the Jesuit saw many new and strange sights, all of which he seems to have remembered and to have made good use of later. But in Peru he was not destined to remain long in one place, for he accompanied the Viceroy Francisco de Toledo, who at that time was engaged in learning from intimate contact all that he could about his vice-royalty. When not on his travels, however, Acosta spent much of his time at Juli, the seat of the Jesuit Order near Lake Titicaca. There it was that he composed many notes about his travels, recorded the stories and experiences of adventures, explorers, and seamen, and compiled among other things the first books that were to compose his great history. Between these activities he taught moral theology at the Jesuit College in Lima and eventually became the Provincial of the Order in Peru. During the session of the Third Council of Lima (1583), Acosta was its secretary and historian.

In this year, after a busy life in Peru, Acosta left with his numerous notes and unfinished manuscripts for New Spain, where he resided in Mexico City for nearly 3 years, always observing everything, delving into the antiquities of the region, and listening to all persons having interesting experiences to relate. Finally, in 1587, Acosta returned to Spain, hastened somewhat by the desire to see his accumulated knowledge in print. Soon after his arrival he was able, in 1588, to have the first two books of the history which he had composed in Peru published at Salamanca, where they appeared under the title *De natura novi orbis libri duo*. This volume was republished subsequently, but is today extremely rare. Within the next few months Acosta completed at Madrid the manuscript of his larger work, and in 1590 at Seville there was published the *Historia natural y moral de las Indias en que se tratan las cosas notables del cielo, y elementos, metales, plantas, y animales dellas; y los ritos, y ceremonias, leyes, y gobierno, y guerras de los Indios*. A second edition appeared at Barcelona the next year. This work contains the first two books previously published in Latin in 1588, now translated into Spanish, together with five additional books written in Spanish. The first four books are devoted to a discussion of the natural history of the Indies, while the remaining three deal with moral history, the emphasis being upon native customs, habits, religion, etc. His thoughts are presented in a straightforward manner, although at times from a metaphysical angle. His viewpoint was essentially that of a learned scholar, and his work ranks high as an authority in the field which he treats. In consequence he almost immediately won considerable fame, but he died on February 15, 1600, before full honor could be rendered him. His history was soon after translated and published abroad, the first edition in Italy being

issued in 1596, and the first editions in France, Holland, and Germany in 1598. The first English edition appeared in 1604, while the best English edition, though perhaps hastily done, is that by Clements R. Markham, published by the Hakluyt Society in two volumes in 1880.

## VI

Several admirable local histories, dealing with specific sections of the Spanish colonies as well as a number of special accounts of the conquest of Mexico and Peru, were written in this century; but of the latter class of histories two stand out as of greatest importance in recording the deeds of Pizarro and Cortés. The account of the Conquest of Mexico has been admirably told by Bernal Díaz del Castillo. Although the exact date is uncertain, he was probably born in the year that Columbus discovered America, in Medina del Campo, where Acosta more than 50 years before first saw the light of day. His parents, who belonged to the lower grade of nobility, seem to have afforded the youth sufficient education for his immediate needs. In 1514, at about the age of 22, he sailed for the Indies on the same vessel as Oviedo, seeking adventure and wealth. After spending some time at Darien, contemporary with Balboa and Pedro Arias, he went to Cuba, where he shortly became acquainted with the future conqueror of Mexico. But being of a restless nature he joined the expedition led by Francisco Hernández de Córdoba to Yucatán, which returned by way of Florida, and in 1518 he sailed with Juan de Grijalva along the Mexican coast. These preliminary experiences well prepared him for the great adventure which he began in 1519, when he joined the memorable expedition of Cortés. During the next few years he lived a most exciting and dangerous life. His reward from Cortés for participation in the conquest was two towns, but he was not immediately destined to settle down as a peaceful *encomendero*. Instead he accompanied Cortés to Honduras, returning from this arduous adventure in 1527 to become a landholder on a small scale. But he aspired to political honor and to the possession of more territory, and when he married at the age of 43 in Guatemala he achieved in a small way both of these aims. However, Bernal Díaz was still dissatisfied with his lot, believing that for his services during the conquest he should be better rewarded. Accordingly in 1540 he returned to Spain to petition the crown, leaving behind a large and growing family which he found it difficult to support. Instead of being welcomed as a *conquistador*, however, he was treated almost like an impostor. He therefore returned to America, but in 1550 he was back in Spain, where he found himself looked to with some honor "as the oldest *Conquistador* in New Spain." But still his land hunger was not satisfied by the Crown.





"HISTORIA VERDADERA DE LA CONQUISTA DE LA NUEVA ESPAÑA."

A 1632 edition of the admirable account of the Conquest of Mexico as told by Bernal Díaz del Castillo bears this unusual title page.



With poverty and failure staring him in the face, at the age of 70 he sat down to record the great deeds of Cortés and the men who accompanied him, hoping no doubt that a posthumous honor might be of benefit to his family if not to himself. His mind at the time was still remarkably clear and vigorous, and his judgment, despite some personal bitterness, was still impartial, as is ably attested by his history. Finally in the year 1568 he completed his story, but his death did not occur until 1581, when he was nearly 100 years of age.

The fame of Bernal Díaz's history rests upon two works, both entitled *Historia verdadera de la conquista de la Nueva España*. One, the original, was preserved in the archives of Guatemala but not discovered until nearly 300 years after it was written; and the other was based upon garbled copies modified by others. The first publication of the apocryphal manuscript was at Madrid in 1613. It was subsequently translated into several languages, the chief English edition being printed at London in 1800 under the editorship of Maurice Keatinge. The most recent edition of this in English was published at New York in 1927 in two volumes, printed in the apparent belief that Keatinge's translation was from the original, despite the fact that Genaro García in Mexico had discovered in Guatemala the original manuscript in Bernal Díaz's own handwriting. This García had published in Spanish nearly 22 years before, issuing it in two volumes at Mexico City in 1904-5. This original edition was rendered into English for the Hakluyt Society by A. P. Maudslay in five volumes (1908-16). Bernal Díaz's work deals with New Spain and Honduras and with the heroes engaged in their conquest. His narrative begins in 1514 and ends in 1568. Although he planned to add further material it was never done. The whole book is written in simple, straightforward language and makes for the student of the Conquest most admirable and interesting reading. Judged in the light of historical perspective it has been awarded high rank for its accuracy and trustworthiness and has been considered next in importance to the five letters of Cortés describing the same events.

## VII

Like the conquest of Mexico, the conquest of Peru was described by several eyewitnesses, but by no one better than by Pedro Pizarro, a first cousin of Francisco Pizarro, the great conqueror. This author was born of noble family at Toledo about 1515. At the early age of 15 he went to the Indies. There he became the page of his cousin, who was then on the point of setting out on his third expedition to Peru. Immediately he began his first-hand observations of the stirring events incident to the conquest. Like Bernal Díaz in Mexico he served valiantly as a soldier and intermittently as a historian. Oc-

asionally he settled down to enjoy temporary quiet, first at Cuzco, then at Arequipa, and later at Lima and elsewhere. The Conqueror granted him large estates and, unlike Bernal Díaz, he prospered financially. The leisure which such peace of mind gave him was devoted partly to writing, and during 1570 and the early part of 1571 he finally compiled his famous *Relación del descubrimiento y conquista de los reinos del Perú*. How long after this he lived no one now knows, but it is certain that no printed edition of his book appeared during his lifetime. The original manuscript found its way eventually into the national library of Madrid; it was there examined and copied for Prescott, who was preparing his history of the conquest of Peru. The whole manuscript left by Pedro Pizarro seems never to have been completely published, but in 1844 it was included in volume five of the *Colección de documentos inéditos para la historia de España*, published at Madrid. In 1917 there appeared at Lima a new edition in Spanish, which Philip Ainsworth Means translated into English and edited for the Cortés Society of New York in 1921.

Pedro Pizarro wrote in an interesting manner with the desire to tell the truth as he saw it, based upon first-hand facts as he observed them. It is unfortunate that so good a work should have remained unknown for more than two centuries, but such tricks did the fickle fortune of fame play on many another sixteenth century historian whose praise cannot be sung here for lack of space.



A CONFLICT BETWEEN THE SPANIARDS AND INDIANS.

## THE SESQUICENTENARY OF THE BIRTH OF SIMÓN BOLÍVAR

ON July 24, 1933, the members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union met in the Gallery of Heroes to pay homage to the memory of Simón Bolívar on the hundred and fiftieth anniversary of his birth. The military genius of this great South American hero was exceeded only by his political insight and his statesmanlike vision. The Republics of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Bolivia, Perú, and Panama are indebted to his military leadership for their liberation. To his civil leadership the entire American continent owes a deeper debt of gratitude for he clearly foresaw the fundamental unity of interests of the American Republics and laid the bases for Pan American cooperation and solidarity. Thus he was honored on the sesquicentenary of his birth, not only by the nations which he freed, but by the twenty-one American Republics which, carrying out his ideals, are now united for the development of commerce, friendly intercourse, good understanding, and the preservation of peace among themselves. In the name of these twenty-one nations Dr. Jacobo Varela, the Minister of Uruguay, in his capacity as acting chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan America Union, laid a wreath before the bust of the Liberator. He then called upon the diplomatic representatives of the six Bolivarian Republics to read the messages sent by their respective presidents. At the close of each message the United States Marine Band played the national anthem of the corresponding country.

Of special significance was the part taken in the ceremonies by the Spanish Ambassador in Washington, Dr. Juan Francisco de Cárdenas, representative of the mother country of the Spanish American Republics, who came to the exercises, as he said, "to join and be one with the representatives of those nations, the offspring of Spain, which form the Hispanic race." This was the first time in which the Ambassador of Spain, as the representative of the President of the Spanish Republic, entered the Pan American Union. At the end of an eloquent address the Ambassador read a message from the President of the Spanish Republic in which he declared that Spain fervently joined in the ceremony of exalting Simón Bolívar, whose deeds, judged today in the perspective of a century, represent the crowning of the magnificent enterprise undertaken by Spain when she proposed to carry European civilization to the American continent. "The efforts of Spain had, at the beginning of the nineteenth



century", the President continued in his message, "reached the point where the normal way for the achievement to reach full perfection was for the nations created by her, and virtually in existence then, to declare independence, to demonstrate to the world that the Spanish enterprise was finished and the nations of Hispanic America were beginning their own careers. Simón Bolívar knew how to fulfill the task of independence with courtly gestures, worthy of a great soldier and a statesman of far, historic vision." Today he is "a glory of the Hispanic race, the common property of all the nations of our family; and Spain does herself honor in offering to him her tribute of ad-

#### HOMAGE TO BOLÍVAR FROM MOUNT VER- NON.

A floral tribute from the home of George Washington was carried by airplane to the birthplace of Bolívar at Caracas, Venezuela, on the occasion of the 150th anniversary of the Liberator's birth. Col. H. H. Dodge, Superintendent of Mount Vernon, is shown delivering the flowers to Dr. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union.



miration for having displayed during the course of his life the most noble characteristics of the heroes and great men of our race."

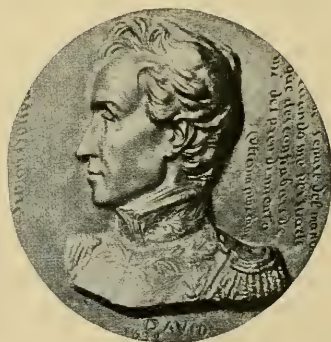
At the end of the exercises, which were broadcast throughout the continent—in Spanish to Latin America and in English to the United States—the Minister of Venezuela, Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya, tendered a luncheon in honor of the occasion.

At the same time that these ceremonies were taking place in Washington the Pan American Airways carried to the birthplace of Bolívar in Caracas, Venezuela, a bouquet of flowers from the gardens of Mount Vernon to be deposited in the room where the Liberator was born.



The flowers had a historical significance, for they were taken from the beautiful hydrangea bushes planted in the garden of Washington's estate by General Lafayette during his visit to the United States in 1824. In addition the Mount Vernon Association, to which has been entrusted the maintenance of the home of Washington, also sent to the birthplace of Bolívar cuttings of plants which have grown in the Mount Vernon garden for more than a century, so that as they grow in the patio of Bolívar's house they may perpetuate the tradition of friendship and appreciation of the family of Washington for the Liberator and the admiration of the people of the United States for the Washington of the south.

The appreciation of the family of George Washington for the Liberator is indeed traditional. Two historical incidents may be recalled. In 1825 George Washington P. Custis, desirous of presenting to Bolívar a token of the esteem of the Washington family, requested General Lafayette to transmit to the Liberator a medal which the people of the United States had presented to the Father of the Country on one of the anniversaries of independence. Accompanying this memento was a medallion containing a portrait of Washington and a lock of his hair. Three years later, on November 8, 1828, another connection of Washington, Eliza Parke Custis, wishing to give new evidence of her admiration for the Liberator, sent him by General D'Evereux the autograph letter in which Washington took leave of his wife in 1775 on the occasion of his leaving for the memorable campaign which brought independence to the United States. The continuance of this tradition of friendship by the Mount Vernon Association was greeted with emotion and deep appreciation by the large and distinguished audience which gathered at the birthplace of Bolívar to witness the ceremonies held at Caracas on the sesquicentenary of his birth.





## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*Revised bibliography.*—Bibliographic series, no. 5, compiled in the Library of the Pan American Union and entitled *Theses on Pan American topics, prepared by candidates for degrees in universities and colleges in the United States* has been revised and enlarged and is now ready for distribution. The first edition, issued in 1931, contained 502 entries, whereas the second has 1,111; this later edition, however, includes a few dissertations in preparation, as well as those already accepted. The compilation is divided into three sections: an alphabetical arrangement of authors, an index by subjects, and a list of universities and colleges in which these theses are prepared.

*Argentine libraries.*—The Biblioteca Argentina para Ciegos (the Argentine Library for the Blind) was given use of the Cervantes Theater (Teatro Cervantes) without charge for a literary and musical program which took place on July first.

The National Library of Argentina is issuing classified catalogs of national acquisitions, of which the Pan American Union has received those for July–December 1932 and January–March 1933. A similar catalog of the section of industries has been compiled. Full title entries for these publications can be found in the following list of new books. It will be recalled by readers of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union that the *Biblioteca y Archivo* of the Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores y Culto is also publishing a list of outstanding books in the *Boletín internacional de bibliografía argentina*, the most recent issue of which is number 18 of November–December 1932.

*Literary awards.*—The awards for the Argentine national literary prizes for 1930 have been announced. The first prize of 30,000 pesos was bestowed upon Dr. Carlos Ibarguren for a history of *Juan Manuel de Rosas*; the second prize of 20,000 pesos went to señor Eleuterio Tiscornia for his *Gramática del Martín Fierro*; and the third prize of 10,000

pesos was awarded to Carlos B. Quiroga for his collection of stories entitled *Los animalitos de Dios*. The committee on awards was composed of Dr. Ramón Castillo, Dr. Norberto Piñero, Dr. Gastón Federico Tobas, and Dr. Gustavo Martínez Zuviría, the popular novelist whose pseudonym is Hugo Wast and who at present is the librarian of the National Library, and Dr. Alfredo Colmo.

*Periodicals suspended*.—Two periodicals have suspended publication recently. The *Revista de las Españas* ceased temporarily with the issue of Año 7, nos. 75–76, noviembre–diciembre 1932, and the *Boletín de la Asociación del comercio de Panamá* stopped with the issue of Año 2, no. 21, enero 1933.

*New books*.—From the Companhia Melhoramentos de São Paulo, Brazil, the Library has received its collection of 18 volumes of educational texts entitled *Bibliotheca de educação*, edited by Professor Bergström Lourenço filho. This series is composed of works by Brazilian authorities as well as translations of noteworthy foreign texts. The collection is divided into two parts, one devoted to the principles and theory of education, the other to their application and to various modern practices. It is the belief of the editor that this series will meet a very real need among Brazilian teachers. The works written by Brazilian authorities are: *Como ensinar linguagem, no curso primario*, pelo Professor Firmino Costa; *Educação moral*, pelo Dr. A. de Sampaio Doria; *Cinema e educação*, por Jonathas Serrano e Francisco Venancio filho; *A escola e a formação da mentalidade popular do Brasil*, pelo Dr. Estevão Pinto; *A hereditariedade em face da educação*, pelo Professor Octavio Domingues; *A escola activa e os trabalhos manuaes*, pelo Professor Coryntho da Fonseca; *Como se ensina geographia*, por A. F. Proença; *Os centros de interesse na escola*, pelo Professor Abner de Moura; *Introdução ao estudo da escola nova*, por Lourenço filho; and *Temperamento e caracter sob o ponto de vista educativo*, pelo Dr. Henrique Geenen.

The publishing house of Espasa-Calpe in Madrid is issuing the complete works of the noted Argentine educator Carlos Octavio Bunge, of which the Library has received nine volumes through the courtesy of the Comisión Protectora de Bibliotecas Populares of Buenos Aires. They are: *Casos de derecho penal*; *La educación*, in three volumes; *Estudios filosóficos*; *Estudios pedagógicos*; *Historia del derecho argentino*, in two volumes; and *La novela de la sangre*.

In addition to the above the Library has received the following books during the past month:

*A note-book of tropical agriculture*, compiled by R. Cecil Wood. . . . Trinidad, B.W.I., The Imperial college of tropical agriculture, 1933. 149 p., incl. tables. 17½ cm.

*Memoria del Congreso universitario americano* conmemorativo del centenario de la jura de la constitución de la República Oriental del Uruguay efectuado en

Montevideo en marzo de 1931. [Montevideo, Talleres gráficos "Prometeo", 1931?] 2 v. 24½ cm.

*Libertad notarial* [por] Luis Martínez Urrutia. 2ª ed. Buenos Aires, Palacio del libro, 1931. 183 p. 25 cm.

*Tschiffely's ride*; ten thousand miles in the saddle from southern cross to pole star, by A. F. Tschiffely. . . . New York, Simon and Schuster, 1933. 328 p. front. (port.), plates, map. 24 cm.

*Cancionero popular de Salta*, recogido y anotado por Juan Alfonso Carrizo. Buenos Aires, A. Baiocco y cía., 1933. 707 p. fold. maps. 28 cm.

*Miga* [por] Félix F. Palavicini. México, Talleres linotipográficos de "Excelsior", 1932. 159 p. 20 cm.

*Guatemala independiente*; recopilación de documentos históricos. Después de la independencia de Centroamérica. . . . Guatemala, Tipografía nacional, 1932. 308 p. 20 cm. (Opúsculo número 2.)

*Con amor a escribir por el bien* [por] Guillermo Stock. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos argentinos L. J. Rosso, 1932. 246 p. 20½ cm.

*El cielo rojo*, cuento dramático con una historia de su vida inédita [por] Guillermo Stock. *Le ciel rouge*, conte dramatique traduit de l'espagnol, par M. Gaston Da Costa. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos argentinos L. J. Rosso, 1932. 115 p. 19 cm.

*El hombre de allá lejos* [por] José Nucete-Sardi. Caracas, Lit. y tip. Vargas, 1929. 139 p. 19 cm.

*Lista de las últimas obras sobre industrias ingresadas en la Biblioteca nacional*. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos de la Biblioteca nacional, 1932. 98 p. 23 cm.

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*Mirando la vida* [por] J. M. Puig Casauranc. México, 1933. 127 p. 21 cm.

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*Etimología*, texto para colegios de segunda enseñanza e institutos normales. Quito, Editorial Gutenberg, 1933. 313 p. 21 cm.

*Ambrosia* [por] Luis Martínez Urrutia. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos argentinos L. J. Rosso, 1930. [70] p. 21 cm.

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*New publications*.—The following list includes the periodicals which have been received in the Library for the first time:

*Alcancia*. Mexico, 1933. [no.] 1. 16 p. 24 x 17 cm. Monthly. Editors: Justino Fernández and Edmundo O'Gorman.

*Boletín de la Cámara de comercio de Bogotá*; órgano de los intereses del comercio y la industria. Bogotá, 1933. 8 p. 34 x 25 cm. Serie VI, número 41. Weekly. Address: Carrera 7ª, n.º. 14-35, Bogotá, Colombia.

*Boletín de la Academia argentina de letras*. Buenos Aires, 1933. 96 p. 22½ cm. Tomo I, n.º. 1, enero-marzo de 1933. Quarterly. Address: Calle México, 566, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.



*En marcha*; revista universitaria. Cuenca, 1933. p. [191]-345. 20 x 14 cm. Año II, n°. II, abril de 1933. Monthly. Address: Centro Renovación, Casilla n°. 66, Cuenca, Ecuador.

*Gaceta judicial*; órgano de la Corte suprema de justicia. Quito, 1933. 28½ x 19½ cm. Año XXXI, nos. 75 y 76. Irregular. Editor: Dr. Ismael Proaño A. Address: Corte suprema de justicia, Quito, Ecuador.

*Revista militar*. Quito, 1933. 109 p. plates. 24 x 17 cm. Segundo época, año I, n°. 1, mayo de 1933. Monthly. Address: Estado mayor general, Quito, Ecuador.

*Boletín de agricultura de la provincia de Córdoba*. Córdoba, 1933. 20 p. tables. 25½ x 17½ cm. Año XIV, n°. 149, enero y febrero de 1933. Bimonthly. Address: Dirección de irrigación y agropecuaria de la provincia de Córdoba, Casilla de correo 38, Córdoba, Provincia de Córdoba, República Argentina.

*Idort*; órgão do Instituto de organização racional do trabalho. São Paulo, 1933. p. [97]-120. illus. 30 x 21½ cm. Anno II, num. 17, maio de 1933. Address: Rua tres de dezembro, 12, 2°. andar, São Paulo, Brasil.

*Jurídicas y sociales*; periódico universitario científico e informativo. Buenos Aires, 1933. 12 p. 40 x 29 cm. Año I, num. I, mayo de 1933. Monthly. Editor: Juan F. Moia. Address: Sante Fe 3316, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

*Revista de estadística municipal de la ciudad de Buenos Aires*. Buenos Aires, 1933. 66 p. tables, diagrs. 27½ x 22 cm. Año XLIII, nos. 11 y 12, noviembre-diciembre 1930. Monthly. Editor: Juan M. Vacarro. Address: Dirección general de estadística municipal, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.



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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



PATIO OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

OCTOBER

1933

MEXICO NICARAGUA GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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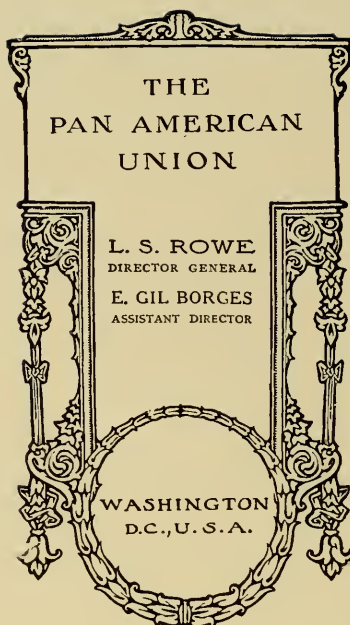
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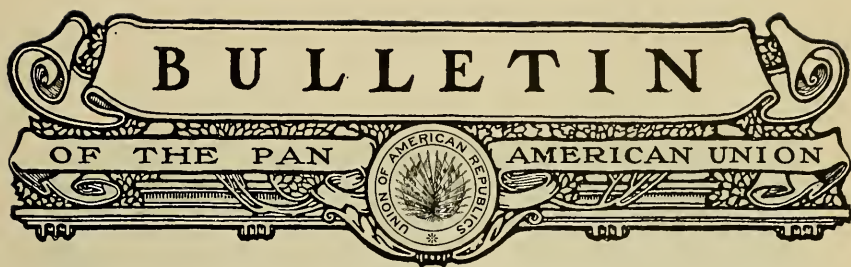
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THE FIRST SITE OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.

The organization, then known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, occupied this building from 1890 to 1910. Here was published 40 years ago the first edition of the BULLETIN.



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VOL. LXVII

OCTOBER 1933

No. 10

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## FORTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF THE BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

### FOREWORD

By L. S. ROWE, Ph.D., LL.D.,  
*Director General of the Pan American Union*

WITH the issue of the October number, the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union completes forty years of service to the nations of America. During that long period the BULLETIN has labored unremittingly to bring to the republics of this Continent a better appreciation of the essential unity of their economic interests and to enlighten public opinion with reference to the contributions which the nations of America are making to science, art, and literature. The English, Spanish, and Portuguese editions of the BULLETIN have been constant messengers of good will to every section of the Western World and as we look back upon the decades of its existence we can measure the great strides that have been made in the forward march of Pan Americanism.

The thanks of the Union are due the devoted Editors of the BULLETIN who, for the last forty years, have given the best of their energy to promoting the cause for which the Pan American Union was founded.





HIS EXCELLENCY GEN. OSCAR R. BENAVIDES, PRESIDENT OF PERU.

## GENERAL OSCAR R. BENAVIDES PRESIDENT OF PERU

A FEW hours after the assassination of President Sánchez Cerro of Peru, on April 30, 1933, the Constituent Congress of the Republic, meeting in special session, elected Gen. Oscar R. Benavides as Chief Executive for the remainder of the presidential term ending December 8, 1936.

General Benavides has had a long and distinguished military career. Born in Lima on March 15, 1876, he was educated at the National Military School. There he completed the course with highest honors, receiving as reward for his excellent scholarship a sword of honor from the hands of Gen. Morales Bermúdez, then President of the Republic. In 1906 the young officer was sent by the Government to France for special studies. He served in the French Army for four years, beginning in 1907, returning to Peru in 1911 to take command of an infantry regiment. While in France he had been promoted to the rank of lieutenant colonel, in recognition of his important services to his country as a member of the Armament Commission in Germany and Austria. In 1910 he had been decorated with the Cross of Chevalier of the Legion of Honor of France.

Promoted to a colonelcy by the Government in 1911, General Benavides was appointed in the following year Commander in Chief of the Third Region, whose headquarters were at Arequipa. He remained at that post until November 1913, when he was transferred to Lima and appointed Chief of Staff of the Army.

Disaffected with the administration then in power, he took command of the Army on February 4, 1914, in defense of the Constitution. On the same day Congress appointed him President of the Committee of Government, a position which he held until the following May, when he was named Provisional President of the Republic, with the rank of Brigadier General. His term as president ended with the election of Don José Pardo to that office in August 1915.

In 1916 General Benavides was sent to France for study; while abroad he visited many European battlefields as aide on the staff of General Neville. At the close of the war, his Government named him Minister to Italy, where he remained until his resignation in 1921. During the Presidency of General Sánchez Cerro, he served as Minister of Peru first in Spain and later in Great Britain. He resigned the latter post to return to his native land to assume the duties of Commander in Chief of National Defense, the position which he held at the time of his election to the Presidency.

# FORTY YEARS OF TRADE WITH THE LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS

By GUILLERMO A. SURO

*Editorial Staff, Bulletin of the Pan American Union*

AGRICULTURE, industry, communications, and transportation have attained their greatest development in Latin America in the forty-odd years from the close of the nineteenth century to the present. The same period has seen the growth of the United States into a powerful mercantile nation with far-flung commercial and financial interests. Aided by the construction of the Panama Canal, the improvement of cable, telegraph, and shipping facilities, and, more recently, by the development of radio, telegraphic, and telephonic communication and the establishment of a comprehensive network of air lines, the financial and commercial relations between these two regions have shown a remarkable growth. The community of interests between the United States and the Latin American Republics and the complementary nature of their economic resources and needs have indeed been a firm basis for the development of sound economic relations.

Haltingly at first, and stimulated by the fortuitous assistance of the World War, the interchange of commodities with the Republics to the south has grown until the United States has become the principal market for the products of their fields, their mines, and their forests, and the main source of the manufactured commodities which they obtain from abroad. With the growth of trade, American capital investments in Latin American agricultural, mining, and public utility enterprises have expanded until today in no other region of the world are they as extensive.

Dependent as the Latin American Republics are for their income upon the exportation of a few all-important raw materials and food-stuffs and for the development of their natural resources upon the investment of foreign capital, the sharp decline in the prices of their products and the sudden check upon international credit which have resulted from the present world-wide depression have caused an unprecedented recession in the value of the trade of the United States with these Republics, as well as in the returns of American capital invested there. The barriers which the Latin American Republics and the United States have erected in defense of their respective national economies have further restricted the free movement of goods and capital essential to recovery. If any lessons are to be learned

from this situation it is the need for international cooperation in the solution of these problems. The present administration has announced its desire to follow such a policy, and to this end is negotiating trade agreements with the Latin American Republics.

TOTAL VALUE OF TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE  
LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS, 1893-1932 <sup>1</sup>

[Thousands of dollars]

Years <sup>2</sup>	United States imports from Latin American Republics	Per-cent of total United States im-ports	United States exports to Latin American Republics	Per-cent of total United States exports	Years <sup>2</sup>	United States imports from Latin American Republics	Per-cent of total United States im-ports	United States exports to Latin American Republics	Per-cent of total United States exports
1893.....	219,762	25.36	86,016	10.14	1914.....	467,946	24.70	279,362	11.81
1894.....	213,036	32.52	76,013	8.52	1915.....	556,345	33.23	248,623	8.98
1895.....	193,114	26.38	72,288	8.95	1916.....	759,211	34.54	407,797	9.41
1896.....	175,616	22.52	74,396	8.42	1917.....	960,236	36.10	584,738	9.29
1897.....	151,955	19.87	75,256	7.16	1918.....	1,023,419	34.74	717,744	12.12
1898.....	132,324	21.47	71,723	5.82	1918(6mos.)	517,708	34.85	349,601	11.01
1899.....	142,961	20.50	85,944	7.00	1919.....	1,318,803	33.77	954,388	11.79
1900.....	162,117	19.07	108,075	7.75	1920.....	1,766,078	33.45	1,488,324	18.08
1901.....	192,102	23.33	116,226	7.81	1921.....	691,250	27.54	758,070	16.90
1902.....	203,662	22.54	112,477	8.14	1922.....	792,329	25.45	522,930	13.64
1903.....	221,672	21.61	112,205	7.90	1923.....	1,026,097	27.05	658,878	15.80
1904.....	254,350	25.66	133,996	9.17	1924.....	1,034,873	28.66	736,696	16.04
1905.....	300,078	26.85	156,543	10.30	1925.....	1,066,447	23.81	844,597	17.20
1906.....	292,286	23.82	206,452	11.83	1926.....	1,041,678	23.50	834,224	17.34
1907.....	332,633	23.18	227,305	12.08	1927.....	959,391	22.92	804,030	16.52
1908.....	271,916	22.76	217,000	11.66	1928.....	948,125	23.17	831,575	16.21
1909.....	322,456	24.57	198,918	11.96	1929.....	1,014,127	23.05	911,749	17.39
1910.....	391,441	25.14	239,252	13.71	1930.....	677,720	22.14	628,176	16.34
1911.....	369,797	24.21	270,663	13.20	1931.....	478,165	22.87	312,617	12.89
1912.....	420,823	25.45	293,311	13.30	1932.....	323,190	24.43	195,726	12.13
1913.....	441,406	24.34	320,919	13.01					

<sup>1</sup> Compiled from "Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States."

<sup>2</sup> Figures cover fiscal years ended June 30, 1893 to 1913; calendar years thereafter.

The trade between the United States and Latin America in the years under review may be roughly divided into three periods—1893-1900, 1900-14, and 1914-32.

The last decade of the nineteenth century is significant because it was during this period that an attempt was first made by the United States to develop closer commercial relations with Latin America through the negotiation of reciprocity agreements. Earlier treaties of this kind had been concluded, it is true, but had failed of ratification by Congress. It was not until the passage of the Tariff Act of 1890 that the President was authorized to embark upon a comprehensive program of tariff bargaining without having to submit the agreements he might negotiate for ratification by the Senate or approval by Congress. The act provided for the continued admission free of duty of coffee, tea, and hides, and the transfer to the free list of sugar and molasses. The President was empowered to suspend by proclamation the free entry of these products, and to impose a penalty duty upon them when imported from countries which, in his opinion, were imposing duties upon American products "reciprocally



unequal and unreasonable." The reciprocity list was especially adapted to bargaining with Central and South America. By May 26, 1892, reciprocity arrangements had been concluded with Brazil; the Dominican Republic; Spain, for Cuba and Puerto Rico; El Salvador; Nicaragua; Honduras; Guatemala; and Great Britain, for the West India colonies. The only countries outside the Western Hemisphere with which agreements were negotiated on their own behalf were Germany and Austria-Hungary, important beet-sugar producing countries. No agreements were signed with tea producing countries. These agreements were automatically terminated by the Tariff Act of 1894, which repealed the reciprocity provision of the Tariff Act of 1890 and established a duty on sugar. Their abrupt termination occasioned protests, resentment, and retaliatory measures.

While the treaties were in force, imports of reciprocity articles, especially sugar, increased over that of the years immediately preceding, while imports of other articles decreased. In 1894, while the total imports of the United States had decreased 13 percent as compared with the 3-year average 1888-90, imports of reciprocity articles increased 27 percent and imports of nonreciprocity articles decreased 26 percent. The articles in the reciprocity list comprised the bulk of United States imports from the Latin American countries with which agreements had been made. The imports of these commodities increased from 78 percent of the total imports of the United States from those countries in 1890 to 84 percent in 1894. The importation of these articles from the countries with which no agreements were negotiated remained about the same, while imports from countries to which the penalty duties were applied—Colombia, Venezuela, and Haiti—showed a marked decrease during this period.

Despite the fact that Latin America was suffering from the effects of the world-wide financial crisis which began in 1890, as well as from widespread revolutionary disturbances, United States exports to the American countries with which reciprocity agreements were in effect, as a whole, showed a substantial increase, while exports to the rest of the world decreased. Upon the termination of the agreements the reverse was true.

All in all, the trade between the United States and Latin America during the last decade of the nineteenth century made little progress. Although imports from Mexico, Argentina, and Chile increased considerably, the proportion of imports from Latin North America was less than immediately before the Civil War and the proportion from South America no greater than in the seventies. There was an increase in exports to Mexico, but trade with the West Indies and Central America was depressed. With the exception of Argentina, whose importation of United States products increased, exports to South America did not make much progress.

UNITED STATES TRADE WITH THE LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS,<sup>1</sup>

1893-1932

[Values in thousands of dollars, i.e., 000 omitted]

	1893	1900 <sup>2</sup>	1914	1918	1920	1929	1932
<i>United States imports from—</i>							
Mexico.....	33,555	28,646	86,281	158,644	179,332	117,738	37,423
Guatemala.....	2,555	2,403	4,595	8,012	20,076	8,470	4,501
El Salvador.....	1,356	739	1,390	8,307	11,915	3,830	1,144
Honduras.....	685	989	2,751	5,295	8,306	12,833	9,004
Nicaragua.....	1,400	1,520	1,450	4,792	7,971	5,748	1,964
Costa Rica.....	2,309	2,980	3,353	8,967	10,133	5,203	3,687
Panama.....			4,473	8,757	8,273	5,351	3,530
Cuba.....	78,707	31,372	146,845	278,635	721,694	207,421	58,330
Dominican Republic.....	2,396	3,680	5,583	8,465	33,878	8,465	3,380
Haiti.....	736	1,185	1,172	6,757	8,973	1,445	612
North American Republics.....	123,639	73,514	257,893	496,631	1,010,551	376,504	123,575
Argentina.....	5,299	8,114	56,274	228,388	207,777	117,581	15,654
Bolivia.....	6			452	10,495	379	6
Brazil.....	76,222	58,073	95,001	98,038	227,588	207,686	82,263
Chile.....	3,996	7,113	24,239	166,083	120,516	102,025	12,278
Colombia.....	3,573	4,308	17,548	24,723	53,642	103,525	60,846
Ecuador.....	960	1,524	3,356	10,122	14,480	5,830	2,386
Paraguay.....			61	140	1,180	529	99
Peru.....	819	2,123	11,270	34,423	63,679	30,167	3,685
Uruguay.....	1,623	1,848	9,597	35,583	33,781	18,677	2,104
Venezuela.....	3,625	5,500	10,917	11,957	22,389	51,224	20,294
South American Republics.....	96,063	88,603	228,263	609,909	755,527	637,623	199,615
Total imports from Latin American Republics.....	219,762	162,117	486,156	1,106,540	1,766,078	1,014,127	323,190
<i>United States exports to—</i>							
Mexico.....	19,569	34,975	33,215	97,789	207,859	133,863	32,575
Guatemala.....	1,764	785	3,127	4,242	10,203	11,524	2,820
El Salvador.....	1,138	679	1,818	3,903	8,148	8,050	2,289
Honduras.....	472	1,181	5,601	5,034	15,362	12,811	4,475
Nicaragua.....	938	1,818	2,306	4,504	9,543	7,032	1,993
Costa Rica.....	1,211	1,462	3,045	2,100	9,778	8,312	2,435
Panama.....			20,975	21,116	33,333	41,133	15,609
Cuba.....	24,158	26,513	67,877	227,156	515,209	128,909	28,775
Dominican Republic.....	1,143	1,317	4,370	16,120	45,523	14,190	4,630
Haiti.....	5,472	2,997	3,841	9,069	19,900	8,790	4,005
North American Republics.....	55,865	71,727	146,175	391,033	874,858	374,614	99,606
Argentina.....	4,980	11,558	27,128	105,105	213,726	210,288	31,670
Bolivia.....	25	59	806	5,289	4,573	5,985	2,160
Brazil.....	12,388	11,578	23,276	57,391	156,740	108,788	28,600
Chile.....	2,981	3,288	13,628	66,404	55,275	55,776	3,568
Colombia.....	3,156	2,711	5,784	10,546	59,133	48,983	10,670
Ecuador.....	817	1,216	2,504	4,172	12,244	6,069	1,754
Paraguay.....		5	83	701	1,814	1,500	
Peru.....	637	1,663	5,876	21,716	47,036	26,176	3,965
Uruguay.....	960	1,817	4,153	16,193	33,721	28,245	3,281
Venezuela.....	4,207	2,453	5,024	7,161	29,204	45,325	10,235
South American Republics.....	30,151	36,348	88,262	294,678	613,466	537,135	96,120
Total exports to Latin American Republics.....	86,016	108,075	234,437	685,711	1,488,324	911,749	195,726

<sup>1</sup> Compiled from "Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States."<sup>2</sup> Fiscal year ending June 30.

During the period from 1900 to 1914 trade between the United States and the Latin American Republics expanded slowly but steadily. Better markets for American products were developed in Mexico, Cuba, Brazil, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay, and progress was made in exports to Argentina. The Latin North American Republics, especially Cuba and Mexico, made a great advance as suppliers of United States imports, the importation of Cuban products having been stimulated by the reciprocity treaty of 1902. In the South American group, increased quantities were imported from Brazil, Chile, Peru, Colombia, and Venezuela, imports from Brazil amounting to \$123,882,000 in the fiscal year 1912. The economic development which became noticeable in most Latin American countries during the last years of the nineteenth century was accelerated during this period by the capital obtained through an increase in foreign loans for the development of natural resources. Railway construction was stimulated and a beginning was made in the establishment of rapid means of communication. By 1914, United States imports and exports from and to the Latin American Republics showed increases of 35 and 39 percent respectively over 1900; in that year, in contrast with the general impression that prior to the World War the trade of the United States with the Republics of Latin America was negligible, exports amounted to \$108,075,000 and imports were valued at \$162,117,000.

The disruption of commerce and shipping brought about by the World War shifted part of the foreign trade of the Latin American nations with the European belligerents to the United States. In 1918 the United States had not only outdistanced the United Kingdom as an exporter of goods to the Latin American Republics, but the proportion of Latin American imports which it supplied was greater than that of Great Britain, Germany, and France combined.

As the war progressed, the Latin American Republics supplied an increasingly large proportion of United States imports, principally because of increased imports of sugar from Cuba, nitrate and copper from Chile, and meat, grain, and other foodstuffs from Argentina. Before the war many Latin American products were first exported to Europe to be later purchased by the United States. As a result of the lack of direct shipping facilities to European ports, this indirect trade between the United States and Latin America was converted to a great extent into a direct trade. In turn, during the war years the United States developed a large reexport trade with the rest of the world in such products as coffee, sugar, rubber, cocoa, hides, and skins.

Perhaps the outstanding factor in the growth of trade between the United States and the Latin American Republics since 1914 has been

the investment of about \$4,000,000,000 of American capital in that region. Prior to the war the investments of the United States in Latin America were relatively small. In 1913 they were estimated at \$1,300,000,000, Latin American financing up to that time having been done largely by Great Britain, France, and other European countries. At the end of 1932, United States investments in Latin America were estimated at \$5,157,000,000, or about one third of the total American private long-term investments in all foreign countries. It is estimated that of the American capital invested in Latin America, \$3,653,000,000 represent direct investments in the exploitation of agricultural resources, such as sugar in Cuba and bananas in Central America, in mining, especially of petroleum and copper, and in public utility enterprises, such as railway, telephone, and light companies. In no other region are American direct investments so extensive. The remaining \$1,504,000,000 represent national, State, provincial, and municipal bonds as well as other miscellaneous securities purchased by United States investors.

The acceleration in the trade between the United States and the Latin American Republics which took place during the World War continued rapidly during the post-war years until it reached its peak in 1920, when exports amounted to \$1,488,324,000 and imports were valued at \$1,766,078,000. This enormous increase, however, was due principally to the rapid advance in prices which took place, particularly in the last years of the war. It was followed by drastic declines in 1921 and 1922. From 1922 to 1929, however, there was a steady growth of trade, with the exception of a minor recess in 1927 as a result of unstable prices. The decline in commodity prices and the practical cessation of foreign investments since 1929 has reduced this trade to the lowest level since 1909.

Over 85 percent of Latin American exports is comprised of only 19 commodities. As far as their foreign trade is concerned, almost all the republics are 1-, 2-, or 3-product countries. During the last quarter of 1932, as compared with the first quarter of 1928, the price of sugar in the world markets had declined 62 percent; that of coffee, 51 percent; copper, 62 percent; tin, 57 percent; and wheat, 65 percent. The effect of such price declines is easily appreciated if one remembers that sugar and tin represent about 75 percent of the exports of Cuba and Bolivia, respectively, and that coffee is the principal crop in Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela, Guatemala, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Haiti. Upon the sale of these products the Latin American Republics depend for the payment of imports. A reduction in the demand for them or in their price means reduced purchases of foreign merchandise, and since the Latin American Governments derive their income largely from custom receipts, a



decline in exports and imports in turn causes a curtailment of government revenues.

That Latin American countries must maintain a favorable trade balance in order to meet charges for imports and foreign investments is axiomatic. They have endeavored to do this through the stimulation of exports and the curtailment of imports by drastic trade control measures, but even those countries successful in maintaining a favorable trade balance have found that in many cases the difference between imports and exports was not sufficient to meet the service on their foreign obligations. Unable to borrow abroad in order to readjust their balance of payments, many of the countries have exported part of their gold reserves and when, despite serious inroads into their gold balances, their currencies have continued to depreciate, suspensions of the gold standard, controls of foreign exchange operations, and moratoria upon foreign payments have followed. Trade recovery in Latin America is thus dependent upon the maintenance of higher prices and the resumption of foreign lending, factors over which unfortunately these countries have little or no control.

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Lacking the high purchasing power of European countries, the Latin American Republics take only 12 percent of the total exports of the United States as compared with Europe's 49 percent; yet the natural limitations of Europe as a market for American products makes Latin America today more than ever an influential factor in the future development of the foreign trade of the United States. Forty years ago the majority of this country's exports were agricultural products. The basis of American export trade has progressively shifted, however, until today the principal class of exports is manufactured goods. Europe looks upon the United States as a source of foodstuffs and raw materials; Latin America, on the other hand, wants from them the finished products which it does not produce. In view of this fact, trade with the Latin American Republics assumes paramount importance.

The National Industrial Conference Board, in its tentative conclusions as to the general trend of the United States export trade,<sup>1</sup> states: "Broadly speaking, the countries whose purchases seem likely to increase most rapidly are those which want our fabricated products, especially our mechanical devices; countries whose purchases seem likely to increase less rapidly are those which import a larger proportion of our foods, materials, and oil products." In 1890 Europe took 80 percent of United States exports. At present this proportion has been reduced to about 50 percent. "Indications are," says

<sup>1</sup> "Trends in the Foreign Trade of the United States," National Industrial Conference Board, New York, 1930.

the Board, "that in the near future our share of the total exports going to Europe will tend to decline even more rapidly than it has since the turn of the century. It is probable that relatively less cotton, less copper, less grain, and less refined petroleum will be obtained from the United States, in proportion as the industrial progress of Europe, which was delayed by the World War, again acquires momentum and begins to overtake that of the United States, which made its greatest advances during the war period. Although American industrialists have been quick to appreciate the situation and to retain a share of the market by transferring part of their production abroad, the effect will doubtless be reflected in our exports to Europe."

As to the future of United States trade with Latin America, the Board prophesies, "Present trends indicate that the proportion of our exports to North and South America will increase, not merely by reason of the relative decline in exports to Europe, but because of expansion of their own purchases from the United States. In Latin America, the favorable factors are industrial progress, road development, and a large potential market of buyers still below the margin of effective purchasing power, but affording a prospect of rapid expansion. Although the influence of these factors may be offset to some extent by adverse developments in the more immediate prospect, progress should be at an accelerated rate over a period of years."

The depression has accelerated the growth of domestic industries in Latin America. Cuba, for example, is now producing not only the bulk of its food requirements, which it formerly imported from the United States, but a large variety of such articles as clothes, shoes, furniture, and construction materials of all kinds. Aside from the fact that the development of such industries will create an increasing demand for machinery and tools, a demand which the United States is particularly well fitted to supply, the higher living standard and increased purchasing power that industrial development will bring to Latin America is more likely to broaden than narrow the demand for such products as motor cars and accessories, films and photographic supplies, electrical appliances, sewing machines, domestic refrigerators, typewriters, cash registers and office appliances, radio apparatus, and new types of agricultural and road-building machinery, in the production of which the United States excels, and which should form the permanent increase in United States exports to Latin America.

Just as the larger part of United States exports to the Latin American Republics consists of manufactured products, so the imports of the United States from these republics are raw materials and tropical and semitropical foodstuffs, products for which this country is largely

dependent upon Latin America. Thus: Ninety-four percent of the coffee imports of the United States comes from Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela, Mexico, and Guatemala. Cuba supplies 98 percent of the cane sugar imported from foreign countries. Central America, Mexico, Panama, Cuba, and Colombia supply 81 percent of the bananas and Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Venezuela, and Ecuador 40 percent of the cacao. Ninety percent of the crude petroleum imports come from Venezuela, Colombia, Mexico, Ecuador, and Peru. Ecuador and Brazil supply practically all the imports of tagua nuts (vegetable ivory) and carnauba wax, respectively. Of United States imports of logwood, Haiti and Mexico supply 95 percent. From Paraguay and Argentina come all the quebracho wood and extract; from Mexico all the guayule; from Brazil, Peru, Colombia, and Venezuela, 92 percent of the balata; from Cuba and the Dominican Republic, 77 percent of the imports of molasses; and from Argentina almost all of the casein and flaxseed imported.

Although the changes in the imports of the United States have been less marked than those in the exports, the trade of this country over a long period shows that the proportion of raw materials and partly finished manufactures to total imports is increasing, with a corresponding decrease in the proportion of imports of finished manufactures ready for consumption.

The Industrial Conference Board believes that United States purchases of manufactured articles "will probably continue to be chiefly specialties, distinctive in quality or design, for which price is a secondary consideration", and that imports of such goods "tend to vary with conditions of prosperity, but they increase less rapidly than imports of commodities used for consumption by the population at large. Such commodities are materials needed for general industrial use and a few staple foods, such as sugar and coffee."

Europe in 1890 supplied 57.1 percent of United States imports; in 1932, 29.4 percent. The Board believes that "we may expect a continued decline in the proportion, though not necessarily in total value, of imports from Europe. Europe does not have for export the kind of goods that the United States particularly requires or wants." As to the prospects of increased imports from Latin America, it says: "Owing partly to the slower increase of imports from Europe and Asia and partly to a steady increase in imports from Latin America, especially if the petroleum resources of Colombia and Venezuela are developed, we may expect the share of Latin America in our trade to rise again to the pre-war level. . . ."

# THE EVOLUTION OF INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN CONFERENCES

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INTERNATIONAL cooperation has always been a characteristic of the American Continent. In fact, the very existence of many of them as independent nations is due in large measure to the assistance mutually rendered during their struggle for independence. Because they made common cause with one another the achievement of independence was, if not made possible, at least facilitated and expedited by many years. This characteristic is most forcefully illustrated in the case of the Spanish colonies of South America. In the north and in the south the peoples of the several Provinces, after their own particular objects had been achieved, joined with their neighbors until the last obstacle to the complete independence of all the peoples had been removed. Notwithstanding the fact that the conditions under which they existed were common to all and therefore contributed to giving them a common viewpoint, such joint action, embracing the people of a large part of the continent, affords an extraordinary demonstration of continental solidarity and unity of thought and action.

With the achievement of independence, this policy of mutual helpfulness and cooperation found expression in the practice of convening international conferences, at which representatives of the several States met to discuss their common problems. Within a few years after the newly created States had been set up, this feature of present-day international relations was inaugurated by the Republics of the American Continent when the famous Congress of Panama, convened by Bolívar, met in 1826. Henry Clay, then secretary of state, visualized the far-reaching consequences that this new policy of international conferences was to have when he expressed himself in the following words:

The assembling of a congress at Panama composed of diplomatic representatives from independent American nations will form a new epoch in human affairs. The fact itself, whatever may be the issue of the conferences of such a congress, cannot fail to challenge the attention of the present generation of the civilized world, and to command that of posterity.

The Congress of Panama was the forerunner of a number of other gatherings in which the Republics of Latin America participated.



The Government of the United States was invited to the Congress of 1826, but although the invitation was accepted the delegates failed to arrive in time to take part in the deliberations; in the subsequent conferences, however, and up to the First International Conference of American States in 1889, representation in American conferences was limited to the nations of Latin America.

In 1847, and on invitation of the Government of Peru, a congress was held at Lima, in which the Republics of Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, New Granada (Colombia), and Peru were represented. A second Congress of Lima was held in 1864, at which representatives of Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, Colombia, Guatemala, Peru, and Venezuela were present. Another international congress was held at Lima in 1877, in which delegates of Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela participated. In 1883, on the occasion of the centenary of the birth of Bolívar, a Bolivarian Congress met at Caracas, with representatives in attendance from Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, El Salvador, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela. This was followed by the South American Congress at Montevideo, in 1888-89, with delegates present from Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay.

The conferences held on the American Continent between the Panama Congress of 1826 and the congress at Montevideo of 1888, were what might be called regional in character. Beginning with 1889, however, the conferences assumed a continental, or inter-American scope, embracing all the independent nations of the Western Hemisphere. The First International Conference of American States met at Washington in 1889-90, on invitation of the Government of the United States. Since then, six of this series of conferences have been held, and the Seventh International Conference of American States is scheduled to meet at Montevideo in December next.

#### NATURE OF EARLIER INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The earlier conferences between the American Republics were primarily political in character, and had for their principal object the consideration of measures for the common defense and mutual protection of the participating States. For many years after independent governments had been established, rumors and threats were rife of contemplated movements against the newly created States, and their political leaders wanted to be prepared for any individual or concerted action that might be taken against them. As the distinguished Argentine statesman and jurist, Dr. E. S. Zeballos, declared:

The heroes of American independence were actuated by a common feeling of continental brotherhood; they recognized the necessity of organizing sufficient

international strength to inspire respect and resist any attempt on the part of Europe to restore the old regime.<sup>1</sup>

Thus, at Panama, the principal and most significant agreement signed was the treaty of union, league, and confederation. By this treaty the signatory States formed a defensive and offensive alliance, and stipulated that the object of the compact was to maintain their sovereignty and independence against foreign subjection. Supplementary agreements reinforced the provisions of this treaty.

Again, at the Congress of Lima of 1847, the question of national safety was the dominant topic. The principal agreement reached at that gathering was a treaty of union and confederation, by which the contracting States agreed reciprocally to support their sovereignty and independence, and to maintain their territorial integrity.

Animated by the same considerations that influenced the convening of the Congress of 1847, the Governments of Chile, Ecuador, and Peru signed at Santiago on September 15, 1856, a treaty of league and confederation. Several months later a similar treaty was signed at Washington by the representatives of New Granada, Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Costa Rica, Venezuela, and Peru. Both these agreements contemplated joint action for the mutual protection of the signatory States.

Threats to the territorial integrity and national security of several of the Republics were the reasons for convening the second Congress of Lima in 1864, and at that time there were concluded and signed two treaties, one of union and defensive alliance, the other for the maintenance of peace. By the treaty of alliance, the parties agreed to defend reciprocally their independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity against any foreign aggression. In the treaty for the maintenance of peace, the signatory States obligated themselves to resort exclusively to pacific means for the settlement of their differences.

While these early inter-American conferences were called primarily to discuss ways and means of preserving the national security of the participating States, conclusions reached were not restricted wholly to agreements having that object in view. The program of the Lima Congress of 1847, for instance, was formulated on a much broader basis. In addition to the treaty of confederation, a treaty of commerce and navigation, a consular convention, and a postal treaty were also signed.

It is not the purpose of this article to examine in detail the action taken on these agreements, or the permanent results of these conferences, but merely to set forth the spirit that inspired them, and the conditions that influenced their convocation. It is true that most

<sup>1</sup> E. S. Zeballos, "Conferencias internacionales americanas, 1797-1910," Valencia, 1914, p. 8.

of the treaties failed of ratification. Many writers have inquired into and have sought to explain the failure of ratification after the agreements had once been signed. Dr. Alejandro Alvarez, distinguished international lawyer, of Chile, explains this circumstance as being due to "the enormous distances which separated the countries, the instability of the early governments, the exaggerated regional spirit of independence, boundary disputes, and civil wars; to these factors should be added, wars between nations."<sup>2</sup>

To these reasons, the Colombian statesman and jurist, Dr. J. M. Yepes, adds the following:

We should add to these causes of failure the fact that in every instance the United States was ignored, for it was then, as it is today, the most powerful nation in America and the one with the greatest influence on the destiny of the continent. This exclusion, it must be recognized, was a great error. Pan Americanism should be based on the solidarity of all the American democracies, on the harmonizing of their interests, on the absence of irreconcilable antagonisms, on the judicial equality of all nations, on the identity of aspirations and international policies, and on the recognition of all as members of a single family of nations.<sup>3</sup>

Further in his study, Dr. Yepes makes this additional observation:

All those congresses were conceived at times when a Spanish reconquest was feared; once the danger which had brought them into being had passed, no one gave a second thought to the necessity of convoking them until a new threat again united the American nations in the organization of their common defense; the enormous difficulty of communication between the nations of America made any meeting of their representatives in an international conference almost impossible; *esprit de suite* and perseverance were lacking, elements essential for the triumph of any human undertaking.<sup>4</sup>

Notwithstanding the failure of ratification of these early treaties, it would be erroneous to declare them, or the conferences which evolved them, fruitless. In these early agreements were incorporated advanced principles of international law, far ahead of the spirit of the day in which they were promulgated, and which the world as a whole only today is seeking to make generally applicable in international relations. Even though these treaties failed of ratification, the principles enunciated therein were generally applied by the signatory nations in their relations with one another.

Dr. Yepes, quoted above, has admirably summarized the contributions of these conferences, in the following paragraph:

Yet it cannot be said that the accomplishment of the American congresses of this first epoch was wholly sterile. Great juridical principles which Europe had not yet recognized in its international relations were affirmed at them, and the bases of a true American solidarity laid. The principle of the equality of all nations before international law was put into practice, and the necessity of the cooperation of all for the defense of democratic institutions proclaimed; arbi-

<sup>2</sup> Alejandro Alvarez, "Le droit international américain," Paris, 1910, p. 60.

<sup>3</sup> J. M. Yepes, "El panamericanismo y el derecho internacional", Bogotá, 1930, p. 51.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 62.



tration was adopted as the sole civilized and Christian means of resolving conflicts between nations; the humanization of war was recommended, and certain barbarous practices, at that time customary in other parts of the world, were condemned. Efforts were made to codify international law, such codification being the only means of making sure that the relations between States would develop in a spirit of justice and equity. In fine, at these congresses the political and juridical outline of the continent was boldly traced, and concrete formulas were presented for the solution of grave international problems which even today worry the greatest statesmen and diplomats of the world. The more the work of those congresses is analyzed, the greater the conviction becomes that they were presided over by the highest spirit of international cooperation and by profound wisdom, which might serve as guide and example for all assemblies of this nature. The Pan American conferences of the second epoch would have been fruitful if they had accomplished no more than the completion of projects which had been outlined earlier and which will go down in history as patent proof of the capacity and breadth of outlook of the men of America.<sup>5</sup>

The utility and the value of these early conferences is also emphasized by another distinguished Colombian statesman and diplomat, Dr. Francisco José Urrutia, who says:

It should be recognized, nevertheless, that the congresses and conferences whose history I have just outlined, as well as the pacts which were signed at them (even though the latter may not have been ratified), were undeniably beneficial, inasmuch as they contributed powerfully to the development and the final orientation of the foreign policy of the American States; they tightened remarkably the bonds between these States; and they inaugurated a series of traditions and precedents of the highest value in the political and juridical domain. Thus, when the first Pan American Conference met on October 2, 1889, the members recognized that the principles which were to guide them, both in their mutual relations and in their relations with other States throughout the world, had long been part of the conscience of the American nations. They have always proclaimed these same principles and upheld them afterwards, both in other Pan American congresses and in the great world congresses, such as the Hague Conference or the Assembly of the League of Nations.<sup>6</sup>

#### THE JURIDICAL CONGRESSES

The Congress of Lima of 1864 was the last of the series of so-called political conferences. Thereafter, the threat of reconquest was no longer manifest, and the independence of the several States was generally recognized. With the removal of this danger, the necessity of convening conferences to consider ways and means of defense also disappeared.

In the years following, and before the inauguration of the series of International Conferences of American States in 1889, several important conferences of a juridical character were held in South America. The first of these was the Juridical Congress of Lima of 1877, which was followed by the South American Congress at Montevideo in 1888-89. The purpose of these conferences was to simplify the prin-

<sup>5</sup> Yepes, *op. cit.*, p. 62.

<sup>6</sup> Francisco José Urrutia, "Le continent américain et le droit international", Paris, 1928.



ciples of private international law applicable in the countries of America.

As has already been stated, at the Lima Congress of 1877 representatives of Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela were in attendance. The Government of the United States was also invited, but because of the fundamental difference in the basis of the law of that country and that of the Spanish American nations, and also because of the dual nature of the legislative system in the United States between the Federal and State Governments, the invitation was declined. For the latter reason, the Government of Colombia also considered it impracticable to participate in the congress, and although steps were taken to send a representative to Lima, Colombia did not actually take part in the meeting. Subsequently, the Governments of Guatemala and Uruguay adhered to the conclusions reached by the conference.

The congress of 1877 resulted in the negotiation and signing of a treaty to establish uniform rules in matters of private international law, as well as a convention on extradition.

The South American Congress of 1888 was also primarily a juridical gathering, and had among its delegates some of the outstanding jurists of the South American nations. The deliberations of the congress resulted in the signing of treaties on international civil law; international commercial law; international penal law; the international law of procedure; literary and artistic property; trade marks; and patents; and a convention on the practice of the liberal professions. Besides the foregoing instruments, an additional protocol was also signed, containing provisions of a general character.

Between the conferences of 1877 and 1888, a congress to commemorate the centenary of the birth of Bolívar met at Caracas in 1883. The first two gatherings were principally for the purpose of considering questions of private international law, while at the Bolivarian congress of Caracas a series of declarations on public international law were signed.

#### THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES OF AMERICAN STATES

Beginning with 1889, the conferences between the American Republics assumed a continental character, embracing all the independent nations of the Western Hemisphere. Whereas the earlier international American conferences had usually been restricted as to the subjects discussed, beginning with the First International Conference of American States the programs were much broader in scope. The conferences were primarily economic in character, but they encompassed in their programs topics of a juridical and political nature, particularly insofar as questions of arbitration and conciliation were concerned, as well as economic subjects. An examination of the

programs of the six conferences thus far held, as well as the program of the forthcoming Seventh Conference, will reveal the great variety of subjects treated, embracing commercial, financial, industrial, and other economic questions; intellectual and cultural relations between the American Republics; public health and social welfare; arbitration and conciliation; the codification of international law, etc.

In discussing the evolution of these conferences, it may be said that their growth and development represent in a sense the evolution of the participating States themselves. Made up as they are of sovereign States, the conferences reflect, as in a mirror, the point of view or the development of the component parts of the conferences. Considered from this angle, the programs of the conferences necessarily repeat topics considered at preceding gatherings. This does not mean, however, that each conference is merely a fruitless repetition of the discussions had at its predecessors. Unfortunately, this is the attitude frequently adopted by critics of the International Conferences of American States, based probably on a mere superficial examination of the topics of the programs. A more careful inquiry into the results of the conferences would show the fallacy of this conclusion; it would reveal that as the position and point of view of the participating States change and evolve, so also do the International Conferences of American States; and that the action of a later conference on a particular subject constitutes a step in advance of that taken previously on the same subject, or represents an attempt to find a formula acceptable to all or to a majority of the States.

As between the participating States and the International Conferences, it is useless to expect that the one may proceed faster than the other in its evolutionary process. But each may, and undoubtedly does, contribute to the development of the other. By acting as a sounding board, so to speak, of continental opinion, the conferences and their discussions necessarily affect the viewpoint and attitude of the individual member States. Similarly, the conferences give direction and point the way along which the twenty-one nations are prepared to go; that is, they consolidate, in a continental sense, the action which each nation is prepared to take individually.

This relationship of the conferences to the States has been strikingly revealed in the consideration of the subject of arbitration and conciliation at successive International Conferences of American States. Beginning with that of 1889, the subject of the peaceful settlement of international controversies has been a major topic before most of these international conferences; but until the last few years no satisfactory agreement, acceptable to all the States, could be evolved. And this was merely because it was not compatible with the interests of all the States to enter into agreements of that character. But once the obstacles impeding the negotiation of such agreements had been

removed, and the viewpoints of the individual States had evolved to the point where it was considered that the national interests would be served by such agreements, treaties embodying advanced principles of arbitration and conciliation were signed. This was accomplished at Washington in January 1929, at the International Conference of American States on Conciliation and Arbitration. Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, former President of Panama and distinguished international lawyer and authority, has succinctly traced the progress of this subject through succeeding international American conferences, in the following words:

The first conference, held at Washington in 1889, animated by a spirit of noble enthusiasm for the cause of obligatory arbitration, confined itself to recommending the adoption of this civilized and beneficent principle. In the following conferences there was encountered in respect to compulsory arbitration either a spirit of lukewarmness or one of frank resistance, and these conferences could never get beyond words, optatives, and recommendations. The Sixth Conference emerged from this unfertile field when it declared solemnly, not that it recommended, but that it adopted compulsory arbitration as a means of resolving international differences between American States, and arranged for the holding in Washington of a special conference with the object of formulating a multilateral treaty carrying this principle into effect.<sup>7</sup>

A similar evolutionary process may be witnessed in the case of other topics that have several times appeared on the programs of the International Conferences. Thus, proposals to undertake the work of codification of international law were advanced as early as the Second Conference of 1902 at Mexico City, and although a convention was signed it was never carried into effect. In 1906, at the conference at Rio de Janeiro, another convention was signed creating an International Commission of Jurists. The commission did not meet, however, until 1912, and the intervening World War interrupted the program of work which the commission had laid out for itself. With the resumption of the International Conferences at Santiago, in 1923, plans were again laid for the codification of American international law. The outcome was a reorganization of the International Commission of Jurists, provided for in the 1906 convention. This commission met at Rio de Janeiro in 1927, and prepared a number of projects which were submitted to the Sixth Conference at Habana in 1928. The result was the adoption and incorporation into the form of conventions of seven agreements, relating to the status of aliens, treaties, diplomatic officers, consular agents, maritime neutrality, asylum, and the rights and duties of States in the event of civil strife. At the same time the conference signed the Code of Private International Law, also submitted by the International Commission of Jurists, and which had been originally drafted by the eminent Cuban

<sup>7</sup> "Current History", New York, February 1929, p. 824.



jurist, Dr. Antonio S. de Bustamante. But the task of codification is a large one, and the subject will undoubtedly appear on many future programs. Thus, one entire chapter of the agenda of the forthcoming Montevideo Conference is devoted to the problems of international law.

As stated at the outset of this section, topics of an economic character have predominated on the agenda of the International Conferences. Among these have been such matters as trade-mark protection and the protection of industrial and intellectual property. A review of the action taken on these subjects at the successive conferences serves to emphasize the difficulty of finding a satisfactory formula, one that will meet with the approval of all the participating States. At the Mexico City Conference of 1901-2, two conventions were signed, one on copyright, the other on patents and trade marks. Five years later, in 1906, it was sought to consolidate these agreements into a single convention, embracing patents, copyright, and trade-mark protection; but at the Fourth Conference of 1910 this consolidation was found to be impracticable, and accordingly three separate conventions were signed on trade-mark protection, copyright, and patents. Although the 1910 convention on trade marks was ratified by all but six of the countries represented at the conference, the agreement was subsequently denounced by several States because it was found that it operated unfavorably in some respects. A revision was attempted at Santiago in 1923, but no really satisfactory convention on trade-mark and commercial protection was negotiated until 1929, when the Pan American Trade-Mark Conference met at the Pan American Union. This conference was made up of technical experts, who made a thorough study of the problem and formulated an instrument which it is believed adequately covers every phase of the subject.

In the field of transportation, the successive conferences have given consideration to the various forms of communication, and have reached conclusions seeking to facilitate and regulate international transportation among the republics of the American Continent. Thus, at the First Conference of 1889 a recommendation was adopted and carried into effect providing for an Intercontinental Railway Commission to survey a route for a railway extending from the United States in the north to Argentina in the south. The report of this Commission is a comprehensive survey of the territory that would be traversed by such a line, and although such a railway has never been constructed in its entirety, the report has been a source of information in the surveying and construction of lines of communication. With the expansion of automotive transportation, the subject of highway communication facilities has appeared on the program



of Pan American conferences. These discussions have without doubt stimulated and given direction to the construction of facilities for this new means of transportation. The recently completed survey of an Inter-American Highway through the Republics of Central America is a consequence of the action taken at Pan American conferences. At the same time, provision has already been made for the regulation of international automotive traffic on the American Continent, by virtue of a convention signed at the Pan American Union in 1930. Similarly, and with respect to the most recent and fastest form of transportation, namely, by air, the Republics of the American Continent have negotiated and signed a convention on commercial aviation on the basis of a draft previously drawn up by an international commission of experts.

As indicative of the broad scope of the International Conferences of American States, reference may be made to the consideration that has been given to intellectual questions and to the development of closer cultural ties between the republics of the American Continent. Agreements on the exchange of official, scientific, literary, and industrial publications and on the exercise of the liberal professions were signed as early as the Second Conference of 1902, but it is only within recent years that activity in this direction has been stimulated and emphasized, culminating in the creation at the Sixth Conference in 1928 of an Inter-American Institute of Geography and History and of an Inter-American Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, with headquarters at Mexico City and Habana, respectively.

Obviously, it is not possible within the confines of this article to trace the development of every subject considered at the International Conferences of American States. The foregoing are cited merely as examples of the evolutionary process through which the subjects treated at these conferences pass, to show that as times and conditions change, and the point of view of the participating governments alters, so also do the results of the conferences. In addition to the subjects mentioned above, many others could be given, including customs procedure, consular procedure, cooperation in monetary and financial matters, public health and sanitation, agricultural cooperation, etc. On many of these, important agreements have been reached and conclusions been put into effect which undoubtedly have proved to be of immense benefit to all the nations of the Western Hemisphere; on others, progress has been slower, owing to the variety of interests involved and the difficulty of finding a formula acceptable to all. But all of these subjects are receiving constant attention and study; they have appeared on the programs of previous conferences, and will without doubt be the subject of consideration at future inter-American gatherings.

A feature of the conference movement on the American Continent in recent years has been the large number of special or technical gatherings, supplementary to the International Conferences of American States. Several of these specialized conferences may be traced back over a period of years, particularly the Pan American Sanitary Conferences, the Pan American Scientific Congresses, and the Pan American Commercial Conferences. Since the Fifth International Conference of American States of 1923, however, such special or technical meetings have increased greatly in number, and the subjects which they have been called upon to consider cover virtually every phase of inter-American activity. Generally they are called to consider a particular topic, or a group of related topics, and by concentrating on one subject the delegates are in a more advantageous position to give to the matter the careful study and detailed consideration which it merits. Some of the most important accomplishments of the last few years have been achieved at these special or technical conferences. Thus, the advanced treaties on arbitration and conciliation, signed in 1929, were negotiated at the specialized International Conference of American States on Arbitration and Conciliation; the most recent trade-mark convention was drawn up by a technical commission of trade-mark experts in 1929; the Pan American Convention on Commercial Aviation was drafted by a commission of aviation experts and made the basis of discussion at the Sixth International Conference of American States in 1928; and, likewise, the Inter-American Convention on the Regulation of Automotive Traffic was drawn up and signed in 1930 by a group of automotive and highway engineers. In anticipation of the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo, a number of specialized groups are engaged in preparing projects on certain topics of the agenda which will be submitted to the delegates as a basis for discussion.

Finally, the evolution of the international American conferences since 1889 may be traced through the growth and expansion of the Pan American Union, the institution which serves as the permanent organ of the conferences and of the union of American Republics. Dr. Yepes, in his book previously quoted from, ascribes as a reason for the lack of permanent results of the earlier inter-American conferences, the fact that "No organ of communication had been created to serve as the motive force of all activities."<sup>3</sup> The Pan American Union serves as such an organ for the Pan American movement initiated in 1889. Conceived originally as a commercial bureau for the collection and dissemination of statistics and information on the commerce of the American nations, the scope of the institution has

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<sup>3</sup>J. M. Yepes, *op. cit.*, p. 62.

grown with each succeeding International Conference. Today, on its official side, the Pan American Union prepares the program and regulations of the International Conferences of American States, keeps their records and archives, and assists in securing ratification of the treaties and conventions and action on the resolutions adopted at the conferences. In its unofficial capacity, the Union serves as a center of information on every phase of inter-American activity, whether it be commercial, financial, industrial, agricultural, or whether it relate to intellectual and cultural matters. The Pan American Union is the outward manifestation of a living and growing movement of approximation of a group of States in an important region of the world. As these States evolve and develop, so also will the Pan American movement, and with it the institution that serves as the organ of this union of American States.



# SOME LESSER KNOWN COMMODITIES OF COMMERCE

By WILLIAM A. REID

*Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union*

TO THE stranger traveling through Paraguay one of the surprising sights is the vast number of wild orange trees. Oranges lie piled in orchards; there are corrals of oranges along trails awaiting shipment; ox-carts are bearing oranges to market; at frequent intervals the international trains for Buenos Aires carry nothing but tons of oranges. Paraguay is truly a fruitful land in this universally popular fruit. And Paraguay has two varieties of the orange: the edible and the inedible. Both classes serve mankind.

Years ago a botanist who sought orange-blossom nectar for cosmetic manufacturers of France found Paraguay a fertile field. But the work of gathering blossoms proved a stupendous task. Perhaps leaves as well as blossoms, reasoned the botanist, might afford the desired material. So he began experimenting; in the end, leaves were found to be about as valuable as blossoms and they were far more plentiful. Thus was laid the groundwork of an important Paraguayan industry of today—the production of oil of petit-grain. This unusual industry is little known beyond the bounds of Paraguay, but the producers send to the world in normal times about 80 tons of oil annually. It is a product that forms the basis of many soaps and perfumes for the boudoir, and it also enters into the manufacture of flavoring extracts which are sold throughout the world.

The traveler over Paraguay's north-south railway may decide to stop off at Villa Rica, the second city of the republic in size. This place of 30,000 people stands a hundred miles southeast of Asunción, the capital. The name itself means a rich city; forest and fertile agricultural lands extend for hundreds of miles in all directions. Villa Rica is one of the world's outpost cities, and all kinds of raw materials come mostly by trails to its market places.

Here he can hire saddle horses and proceed into vast and virgin solitudes. Now and again he passes thatched roofed buts, then perchance he comes near a home of some well-to-do *estanciero*. Further along the trail he sees smoke, just a tiny stream rising from a thatched roofed shanty. The guide tells him this is a still (but not an illicit distillery). Paraguay has many of these stills and in season they are quite busy. He dismounts at one of them and is received by the owner and his friends with some degree of curiosity. The natives,





A BRANCH OF A BITTER-ORANGE TREE.

Paraguay, a land of orange trees, has for many years been the world's chief source of oil of petit-grain, a distillation from the leaves of the bitter-orange which forms the base of innumerable soaps, perfumes, and extracts.

after convincing themselves that the stranger means no harm, appear really glad to see him. They invite him into the stillhouse. There is a large covered vat connected with copper coils and pipes; smoke issues from fagots of burning wood under the vat. The latter is filled with steaming-hot orange leaves—oil of petit-grain is in process of manufacture. Some of the workers are bringing in the leaves, which have come from far and near. But these leaves are not from the tree producing the edible orange; they have been plucked from the bitter-orange tree, an entirely different variety. The owner of the place is producing from the land roundabout something the world wants.

Some of Paraguay's larger distilleries are located in the villages of Yuguarón, Itá, Itacuraby, and Nemby, all in the region of which Villa Rica is the distributing center. Broadly speaking, it requires from 500 to 600 pounds of leaves to produce a quart of oil, and the output of the smaller stills is only 4 or 5 quarts per day. Yet these diminutive establishments and some larger ones enable the Paraguayan exporters to ship abroad the 80 tons of oil a year; this amount is said to meet approximately 70 percent of the world's demand for this product of the wilds. Most of the output of these country stills is sent to Asunción, where the oil is further refined and prepared for shipment to foreign countries. France is the leading customer, followed in order by the Netherlands and the United States.

New articles are being displayed in our shops and department stores. They are made from a certain material which can be traced to the dairy herds on the Argentine pampas; it is known as casein and is a by-product of the dairy industry.

Let us examine one of these novelties, a pencil; it has gold tips, but the 3 inches between them is of semitransparent substance resembling amber. It is not amber, but pure casein which has received chemical treatment. It is so hard that a knife will not cut it, while its color and luster are decidedly attractive. Another casein article is the paperweight, in the form of cubes, rectangular blocks, or figures of animals, in red, yellow or green, all semitransparent. Other articles produced from casein are umbrella and parasol handles, book racks, cuff buttons, handles for blotting pads. Indeed, a well-known manufacturing company of the United States is finding a constantly increasing number of articles that can be made from the Argentine product.

Casein is a proteid substance found in both the animal and vegetable kingdoms. Its chief animal source is milk, for the main part of the curd consists of casein. This is dried and shipped in bags.

In normal years, Argentina sends to manufacturing nations of the world about 20,000 tons of casein. United States importers buy 60 to 70 percent of this output. The dairy business of Argentina has made rapid strides and today butter and cheese are manufactured in large quantities and shipped to European countries. Casein, a residue from the milk, is becoming more and more important as an article of export, and in particular demand in the United States, England, Germany, and France. Casein not only enters into the manufacture of numerous novelty articles, but finds its way into paints, wall paper, and a score of things of general utility.

How much carnauba wax can be bought for \$2,500,000? That enormous figure represents the value of the 6,714 tons of this peculiar

A GROVE OF CARNAUBA  
PALMS.

This palm, which grows wild over large areas of Brazil, provides for many domestic wants, besides supplying the carnauba wax of commerce, which is utilized by various manufacturing industries.





wax that Brazil exported to the world in a recent year. And most of this product comes from one of Brazil's smaller States, Ceará. Although the demand for wax is not so heavy every year, business runs into a value of a million or so dollars annually; yet comparatively few people outside the trade know what carnauba wax is, whence it comes, or what its uses are.

In the first place, this wax has been characterized as "one of the most curious products of nature." The *copernicia cerifera*, from which it is derived, grows wild over Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Parahyba, Piahy, and other States of northeastern Brazil. It is a straight tree belonging to the palm family, and attains a height of 50 or 60 feet; it has a smooth trunk, the leaves growing in a bushy cluster at the top. The carnauba palm is a wonderful provider for man; the heart, extracted, is used as a vegetable known as *palmito*; the stems of the leaves are used in making excellent fishing nets; and the trunk supplies lumber for fences, corrals, and other purposes. The tree also supplies material for hats, bags, brooms, and mattings. But far more valuable is the wax obtained from the large long leaves which are plucked from September to March. Those collected about the middle of January usually have the richest wax content. Men climb the trees and with long pruning knives affixed to poles cut certain leaves which drop to the ground. Then they are laid in the sun for 2 or 3 days, and, when dry, deposited in storage houses. After a few weeks a whitish dust has collected over them; by "whipping" the leaves it is made to fall on the smooth and tightly laid floor. The dust is then collected by hand and placed in tanks of boiling water for about 20 minutes; the wax gathers on top of the water and is removed, strained, and dried. The result is a yellow, hard, vitreous substance—carnauba wax.

Of what use is this wax? All over northern Brazil it forms the basis of candle-making. In Europe and the United States it is used in the manufacture of phonograph records, shoe polish, floor polish, pomades, and other household necessities. In the electrical industry this same substance is made into insulators, a use which consumes vast quantities of the raw material annually. As a substitute for resin we also find carnauba wax answering the call of a multitude of everyday demands.

Back in 1769 a product with a curious name, divi-divi, was shipped from Venezuela to Spain. From that date on, the article assumed more and more importance to European manufacturers, who made use of it in tanning hides and coloring leather.

For years the importers of the United States have been buying divi-divi from tropical American countries, where it also occupies an important place in leather manufacturing. When the Great War





Courtesy of United States Department of Agriculture.

#### LEAF AND PODS OF THE DIVI-DIVI.

Both the pods and the tannin derived from them are among the exports of Venezuela, Colombia, and the Dominican Republic.

broke out, the price of divi-divi rose almost overnight to enormous figures. By 1919, the importation into the United States had increased to 90 times that of 1913. In more recent years millions of pounds have come to the United States annually. The wholesale cost has ranged around a few cents per pound.

What is divi-divi? The word appears to have originated in the Caribbean countries, probably in Venezuela, whence the first European shipments were made. Botanists know it as *Caesalpinia coriaria*. The tree grows to a height of 30 feet and is said to bear for 100 years; it produces pods 2 to 3 inches long. From them is obtained tannin that is astringent, oily, and mucilaginous; the tannin content usually ranges from 40 to 45 percent.

Venezuela is the most important source of divi-divi, although Colombia, the Dominican Republic, and various other countries of the American tropics could supply large quantities of this product. Venezuela's exports range from about 1,500 to more than 11,000 tons annually; the supply is plentiful and this output could be increased if the demand warranted. Some years ago, in order to economize on ocean-freight charges, two extracting plants were established in Venezuela, one at La Guaira and the other at Porlamar. At both plants an extract containing 80 percent tannic acid and 16 percent tannic glucose is obtained by a patent process and pressed into cakes for the export trade.

In Argentina capitalists have invested some \$75,000,000 in 23 factories, which are producing quebracho extract on a gigantic scale.

This product is obtained from a peculiar tree growing largely in northern Argentina and in Paraguay. The extract from its wood is used for tanning leather. In the United States, the supply of tanning barks is becoming exhausted; such materials must be imported. This Argentine product reaches our tanneries mostly as extract, for it is cheaper to purchase this than to pay freight on whole quebracho logs.

The work of felling the giant trees is a herculean task, as their wood is extremely hard; gangs of laborers equipped with modern appliances do this work. After a tree has been felled, the axmen remove the bark and the sappy outer surface, leaving the extremely red heartwood. The latter holds from 20 to 25 percent of tannin.

Tractors in certain instances are now replacing ox-teams in transporting the logs from the forest to the *aserrineras* or mills where they are reduced to chips or coarse sawdust. In one or the other of these forms the material passes to giant "diffusers", which extract the tannin by means of water and steam under high pressure. Six to eight treatments are usually sufficient to exhaust the tannin properties of the wood; then the liquid is drawn off into evaporators which remove much of the water content.

Many of the mills are extensive and represent vast outlays of capital. In every case, machinery from Europe and the United States makes up much of the equipment.

A series of processes is necessary before the extract is ready to be placed in bags. These are closed by use of coarse twine and moved away to "set" or cool for a day or two. Quebracho in this form looks somewhat like hardened glue. It is of a brown color and, like glue, may be broken into fragments. United States importers buy in normal years \$16,000,000 to \$17,000,000 worth of quebracho extract from Argentine producers.



A QUEBRACHO EXTRACT PLANT.

In Argentina alone there are 23 factories for the extracting of tannin from quebracho logs.

Quebracho timber has another valuable use, for railway ties. For this purpose it is unrivaled, for it lasts from 20 to 30 years. Its density is so great that moisture is excluded, and its tannin properties are said to act as a preservative. A cubic foot of this wood weighs between 79 and 85 pounds, while logs cut in the forest range in weight from 8 to 11 tons.

Did sick goats direct man's attention to the utilization of a useless plant? In northern Mexico one sees vast stretches of arid land dotted with picturesque cacti. There also flourishes the small guayule bush. Several decades ago, as goats were foraging over this dry area, some of the animals ate guayule leaves. They became sick or died, and veterinarians who examined their stomachs found therein certain indigestible substances. The hungry goats had died from the rubber properties contained in the guayule plant.

Dr. Adolfo Marx of Mexico is credited with the discovery of the commercial value of the shrub; after further experiments he erected in 1903 a small plant at Saltillo and began extracting rubber from guayule. Several years, however, elapsed before the trade would concede the value of this class of rubber, although now some authorities on rubber tires claim that, if 10 to 15 percent of guayule is added to plantation tree rubber in the manufacture of motor tires, they will give far greater mileage. Today, the production of guayule in Mexico and elsewhere is enormous.

A plot of Irish potatoes and a plot of guayule plants look somewhat alike. But the guayule grows more slowly, requiring 3 or 4 years to mature. It reaches a height of about 3 feet and spreads over several feet of ground; one of its peculiarities is that it thrives in poor and dry land.

When ready for harvesting the plant and its roots are pulled from the earth and placed in piles. Then they are gathered, baled, and hauled to the factory, where the bush and roots are crushed or ground. Running water carries the mash to settling vats, where the process of separating the rubber globules from the other matter is not difficult.

Some lands yield a ton or two of guayule bushes per acre and when the price of rubber is fair the planter receives a satisfactory income from his labors. His initial expense for land may be as low as 10 or 20 cents an acre. About 20 years ago the price of a ton of guayule rose to the enormous figure of \$150; some time later, however, the same amount brought only \$8, then a profitless crop.

Hot days call for cool beverages. Everywhere in the United States soda fountains, restaurants, and road refreshment stands are passing millions of drinks to millions of thirsty people. And among the new beverages is Matteen, a product derived from the leaf of the maté tree that grows wild in Brazil and Paraguay.





A CULTIVATED FIELD OF GUAYULE.

Since the discovery of the rubber content of guayule, which grows wild in the arid lands of northern Mexico, the plant has been cultivated, and large areas are now devoted to its production.

Ten millions of people in South America, it is estimated, are constant users of the beverage, yerba maté. But to many people in the United States the drink is either unknown or not liked. Now comes the food chemist, who, taking dry maté leaves as a basis, prepares a delicious summer beverage. He removes the bitter tang, which few Americans enjoy, adds certain well-liked ingredients, and combines them with the life-giving properties of the natural maté leaf, and the result is Matteen. This beverage, originally placed on the market in New Jersey, has under other names extended its sale to various States. In Texas the new drink has been found so pleasant that the original company operating there has expanded its activities by opening additional bottling establishments.

Down in Brazil and Paraguay, where yerba maté not only grows wild but also is being cultivated, it is interesting to observe operations. From a small settlement the natives go out to the plantation or to the maté jungle in squads of 3, 4, or 6. These *yerbateros* usually carry small axes or hatchets, some provisions, and water. If they are collecting wild maté it is possible that they may find the trees in clumps, but often the trees are so scarce that only a few can be found on an acre of land. Much, therefore, depends upon the ability of the gatherers to find the most abundant supply of trees. Of course, the smaller the tree, the easier it is to cut or pluck the leaves. A tree 12 feet high may make the gatherer climb about among its limbs in order to cut the best branches.

Where there is a supply of trees, it is likely that a camp will be built nearby. So, while some men are collecting leaves and twigs, others are making a *tatacua*. The latter is a plot of ground, say about 6 feet square, which is cleared and pounded until quite firm. Stakes are driven at corners and edges, and logs of wood piled smoothly over the hard surface. As the returning gatherers arrive with maté branches upon their backs and heads, they throw their loads upon the logs, which, in due time, are set on fire. This fire dries or scorches the leaves making the labor of stripping them from the branches less difficult. The withered leaves are collected in home-made nets and carried to what is known as the *barbacuá*. This is a sort of platform a few feet above the ground, with crosspieces placed closely enough together to hold the leaves. A hot fire is kindled underneath, while a few workers armed with poles keep the leaves stirred and prevent their ignition. This curing process may last for a day and a night. At the end of the curing the burnt wood and ashes are drawn aside, the ground is well pounded, and then the leaves are passed between the supports to the earth. This out-of-date method of catching the leaves on the ground is being superseded, however, by placing boards of hewn sticks close together on the





Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

#### YERBA MATÉ.

Yerba maté, the beverage so extensively used throughout a large section of South America, is brewed from maté leaves properly toasted, dried, and aged. Upper: Toasting the maté. The large branches are held by the operator over the fire until the leaves are uniformly toasted. Lower: Weighing a sheaf of maté. After the toasting process, the smaller leaf-bearing twigs are broken off, gathered into sheaves for weighing, and moved to the *barbacudá* for drying.

earth. Then the dried leaves are pounded into small chaff-like particles for packing into bags, each of which when filled weighs about 200 pounds.

Latest but not least, a new product for use of the human family comes from the shark of tropical waters—shark-liver oil. From recent experiments conducted by scientists it has been shown that this oil is extremely rich in vitamins A and D and that, if taken in concentrated form, it has a much higher therapeutic value than cod-liver oil. Sharks are of various sizes, of course, and the amount of oil that is procurable from their livers doubtless varies greatly. An average-size shark liver is said to yield about 2.5 gallons of oil; some have been found much richer in oil content.

Those who have participated in the exciting sport of fishing for sharks off the coast of Yucatán and off the Pacific coast of Costa Rica realize that those particular waters seem to be the rendezvous of vast numbers of the shark family. In clear water they can be counted by hundreds. These areas and other similarly infested waters would seem to offer pleasing rewards for those equipped to catch this species of huge fish.

A few years ago a concession for shark-fishing off the coasts of Guatemala and Honduras was granted to an American, but he died before his organization was completed. In that instance, however, the company proposed to utilize the teeth, skin and other parts of the shark for commercial purposes, for the scientific investigations above mentioned had not then been made.

The foregoing commodities of commerce, which are not generally well known, are but a few of the raw materials from Latin America that are emerging from obscurity into greater usefulness. One of the agencies that is bringing them to the front is research; and research today is working wonders. For instance, the results of certain contests recently held in the Far East have a direct bearing on one of the oldest products of the Americas—rubber.

Officials in charge of government experimental work in Java offered prizes for suggestions of new uses to which rubber could be placed. In the prize-winning papers one contestant demonstrated that rubber latex may be successfully used for veneering in the manufacturing of furniture; another offered the suggestion that rubber be utilized in trunk and other baggage manufactures; still other showed that derivatives of latex can be utilized in making hand and shaving soaps and in scouring compounds.

While these possible new outlets for rubber are still in experimental stages, the Dutch authorities who conducted the contest are pleased with the awakened interest and will conduct further researches as to the practicability and cost of various uses brought to light by the prize contestants.



"LANCES AND GUITARS" BY CESÁREO  
BERNALDO DE QUIRÓS

In this painting, one of the splendid canvases of gaucha life in the Province of Entre Ríos, 1850-1870, the artist has pictured the meeting of a group of Gauchos of two opposing political parties in a *pulperia* for a contest on the guitar.



## A FEW WORDS ON ARGENTINE MUSIC

By C. J. VIDELA-RIVERO

FOUR hundred and seventeen years ago Juan Díaz de Solís, Admiral of the Spanish King's fleets, brought a tiny caravel squadron down the east coast of South America, in quest of a passage to the fabulous land of the spices.

He was surprised one morning to find that the sea water suddenly had become drinkable—that it was not salty, but fresh. This strange body of water he named Fresh-Water Sea—*Mar Dulce*. Impelled by curiosity, the admiral decided to investigate what manner of people inhabited the shores of this odd country. That curiosity was his undoing, for as soon as he landed the savage Charrúa Indians fell upon his party, killing him and several companions, and driving the survivors to the water. But the Indian triumph was ephemeral. Spanish soldiers came again to the River Plate, and despite untold hardships succeeded in founding cities and settling the land that is today the Argentine Republic.

Some time after the Spaniards had established themselves in this new country the guitar, their national instrument, appeared in the towns and on the plains, and songs that bore some resemblance to the airs of the peninsula began to be heard. This fact might lead one to think that Argentine music is of Spanish origin. That would be logical, but untrue. The predominant ingredient in Argentine music is of Negro origin.

Fierly epithets could be showered upon the chapter of the history of the Americas dealing with the importation of Negroes. But to those whose sentimentality has become more or less calloused by reading of the numberless subjugations of one race by another, it will be sufficient to say that the Negroes were the living answer to the all-important problem of labor supply. After the conquerors had purloined the last remaining pieces of gold and silver in the Indians' possession, it became necessary to extract the metals from the earth, and to till the land for sustenance—in other words, to work.

To perform this task, the Negroes were shipped across the ocean. Most of those who were brought to Buenos Aires became domestic servants or something akin to it. Their masters were not harsh: Once the pots and pans were clean, the horses washed, and the carriages polished, they were at liberty to gather in some vacant lot and carry on a little social life.

There, plaintive guttural sounds blended into incomprehensible songs, accompanied by the rhythmic beating of drums. Arms were raised to heaven, as if in supplication or perhaps in threat, and the earth was soundly pounded by the bare feet of the slaves, who wanted to punish it for harboring the trader and the master.

While the Negroes thus gave vent to their lamentations, the Gauchos roamed the surrounding plains. Silent, sad, tragic, their souls were longing for a means of expression that could describe their secret sorrows.

Nobody knows when or where a Gaucho heard a Negro sing for the first time, but the impression it made upon him was profound. That song had opened to him the gates of a new world; his soul had at last found its means of expression. The plaintiveness of the Negro found an echo in the sadness of the Gaucho—and thus Argentine music was born.

Unlike other folk music, which is usually transmuted into song, Argentine music has taken a plastic form. It is fundamentally dance music.

The fandango was the first materialization of the Negro-Gaucho psychological crossing. Some authors, prone to jump to conclusions, want to attribute a Spanish origin to the fandango, due to certain similarity of rhythm with the Andalusian bolero. But if any outside influence is to be reckoned with in an analysis of the fandango's genealogical tree, such influence is rather Moorish, and was brought to the River Plate by the Portuguese. The Negroes then injected it into their own rhythm, and the fandango thus came out full-fledged, losing no time in invading the outlying sections. From the rural districts it stole into the social affairs of the city's lower classes and, encouraged by the warm reception it got in the back yards, stealthily made its way to the middle-class homes, where it was danced behind drawn blinds. It was all ready to assault the drawing rooms of the aristocracy when Juan José Peralta, archbishop of Buenos Aires, dealt it a death blow. Under pain of excommunication for those who dared to disobey, the archbishop banned the fandango on July 30, 1743.

The *malambo*, the next invented, was more fortunate because it was, perhaps, more diplomatic. It decided to remain a country dance, leaving drawing rooms alone, and thus it did not incur any archiepiscopal fulmination. Here the Negro influence is clearly apparent. The *malambo* music is jumpy, nervous, contagious. It has rhythmic beatings that immediately betray the part that the tom-tom, or its spirit, played in creating it.

The *malambo* is exclusively a masculine dance. One Gaucho taps, kicks, crosses his legs, pounds the earth with the side of his feet, make his spurs tinkle, and fills the air with a thousand and one different figures while his opponent, crouched, watches him. When



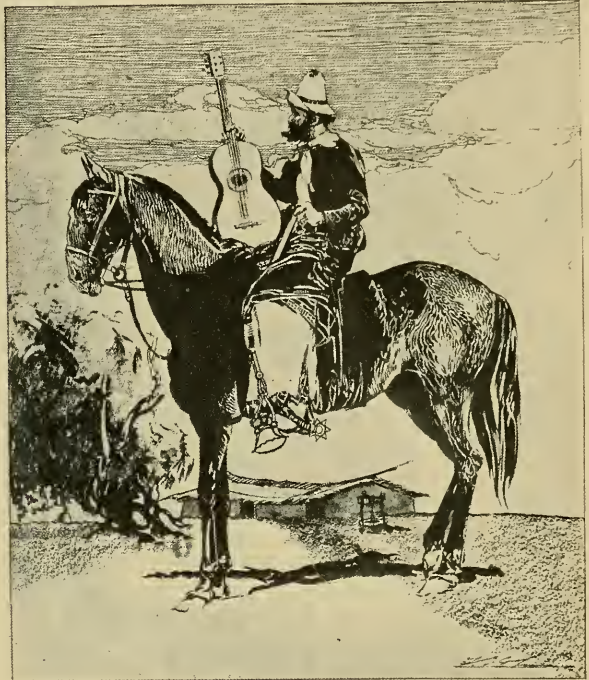
the guitars cease playing, the dancer stops and takes his turn at crouching and watching.

Encouraged by the success attending the *malambo*, the Gaucho proceeded to create new dances, and it became more and more noticeable that in the process of such creation he was declaring his independence from outside influences. Such a trend is clearly shown by the *gato*.

This dance demonstrates to what extent the Gaucho was a close observer of nature, and what a fine sense of melody he possessed. The music, in 6-8 time, has two distinct parts: one is purely melodic,

#### A GAUCHO OF THE PAST CENTURY.

The creator of the musical idiom of Argentina was the Gaucho, that picturesque descendant of the early Spanish colonists who led a semi-nomadic life on the great pampas. The guitar provided the musical accompaniment for his plaintive melodies.



From a drawing by Hohmann in "La Prensa", Buenos Aires.

and supplies the material for the song and figures of the dance; the other is rather imitative, and supplies the quick beating that guides the dancers in their sudden foot-tapping. The first part was, to the Gaucho's mind, the role of a bird fleeing from its assailant, and the second represented the steady footfall of the pursuer running after his prey. The music is stopped every once in a while to let the male dancers address a *relación* (compliment in verse) to their female partners, who return it in kind.

Not all the Gaucho dances were such peaceful exponents of bucolic exuberance as the *gato*. There was the *güella*, for instance, which incarnated all the bloodthirstiness that the wars of independence





From "Caras y Caretas."

#### DANCING THE "GATO."

Created by the gaucho, the gato is now one of the regional dances of Argentina. In the hills and valleys of Catamarca practically everyone is adept in this graceful dance, which in most instances is learned in childhood.

and the later civil strife had awakened. It was a painful tune, tragic, almost macabre. It seemed a sudden burst of laughter of madmen. The *güella* was the dance of the executioners—of the men who bent over the prostrate form of their victim, pulled his head back and with a few swift strokes of the knife across the throat put an end to his life. Women refused to dance the *güella*. When the civil war ended, the *güella* vanished along with other sad reminders of 20 years of nightmare.

The *güella* left behind some of its liveliness, and this mixed spontaneously with the gracefulness of the *gato* to form the great national dance of Argentina (and of Uruguay)—the *pericón*.

Nobody invented it; it came into being by itself, anonymously and unannounced.

The *pericón*, with a lively music in 3-4 time, is a charming dance. It is a group affair, requiring several couples which swirl, run, separate, and come together again, holding in their hands blue and

white kerchiefs that, united, form the national flag. The *pericón* still lives in Argentina and Uruguay, sister countries that were once a single unit, and that spiritually still continue to be one, although living politically apart.

The *cielito* (little heaven) was another equally charming dance whose music is still heard in Uruguay and in the Argentine Province of Entre Ríos. Its creator was Bartolomé Hidalgo, perhaps the first Gaucho poet that lived on the shores of the River Plate. Hidalgo was an Uruguayan possessed of a romantic and artistic spirit. In Montevideo, where he lived, he composed Gaucho poems—simple poems, distilling the sadness of the Gaucho soul, for which he composed his own music. The result was the *cielito*, a sweet strain that awoke in its hearers an irresistible impulse to dance.

From Montevideo the *cielito* crossed over to Buenos Aires, where it was at first danced in Negro gatherings. But it was too subtle, too delicate, too beautiful to remain there. It soon found a place in higher environments, where people perceived in it a virgin, artistic, onomatopœic beauty. But the *cielito*, as a dance, was too subtle to resist the advances of modernity. It still survives as music, however, and its charm has not lost any of its lure through the years.

The *zamba*, another Gaucho dance in 6-8 time, is today a companion to the *gato*. Both have a certain nervousness, that is somewhat subdued in the *zamba*.

The waltz also invaded the Argentine plains, but it suffered at the hands of the Gaucho certain alterations that gave it an individual flavor. This modification has led the waltz astray and engendered a new dance, the *ranchera*, in 3-4 time, which may be said to be a mixture of the waltz and the *zamba*.

Other native melodies sprang up in the north, during the latter half of the last century, that are either onomatopœic in nature, or derive from other music imported into the region. Such, for instance, is the *chacarera*, in 3-4 time, and the *chacayalera*, a variation of the former.

Two typical melodies still heard differ from the above-mentioned in that they are only sung and not danced—the *vidalita* and the *estilo*, both in 6-8 time. The former, a sweet musical lament, has four verses, with the word *vidalita*, which really has no exact meaning but reflects the mood of the singer, interpolated between every two lines. The latter has 10 verses.

The last place in this brief sketch of Argentine music must be given to the Argentine tango, about which Waldo Frank and Philip Guedalla have written brilliant comments.

The tango does not truly deserve a place in a history of Argentine music—it rather forces itself upon the writer. Like the fandango, it was born in the slums, and sung and danced by the underworld; it

was fortunate, however, in having come to light at a time when no archbishops were there to fulminate against it, or, better said, when such fulminations would only have helped it along.

The Argentine tango (which must not be confused with the Spanish tango) is a slow melody in 2-4 time. A considerable number of musical frills, which had their counterpart in the dance, adorned it in its early stages. But, as years passed, such finery was deemed to be uncalled for, and consequently discarded. The dance—and the music—polished itself up and received admission to social salons after the World War. It has attained considerable vogue in these days of artistic deterioration.

In order that these remarks should not be closed on a note of disapproval, mention will be made of the fact that the few Patagonian-Araucanian Indians still surviving (who, like their North American confrères, have gone into the real estate business) play on wind instruments a tune they call *loncomeo*, to which, although it seems rather weird to cosmopolitan ears, they dance with particular élan.



From an old lithograph.

#### THE "CIELITO" IN 1841.

This dance of Uruguayan origin, at one time extremely popular, has now disappeared, though its charming music has survived in both Uruguay and Argentina to the present day.



# MAPPING FROM THE AIR<sup>1</sup>

By R. S. PATTON

*Director, United States Coast and Geodetic Survey*

MAN'S distinct vision is limited to a few inches and his view point usually is such that the most distant object he can see is only a few miles away. To transcend these limitations, he has invented maps—maps which place any part of the earth beneath the scope of his glance, that he may plan his actions in accordance with its geographic features. One of his most recent inventions, two properly made aerial photographs under a suitable stereoscope, furnishes a spatial or three dimensional model of the part of the earth it portrays, which is unapproached by any other method for observing and recording complete detailed information. Modern aerial cameras take these models in a few seconds and later they can be made available at any number of offices for many special studies as well as for mapping. The product of one photographic flight may be studied by foresters for forestation, by geologists for structures indicating possible mineral wealth, by agriculturists for soils, and by engineers for water power, navigability of streams, and routes for highways, railroads, or transmission lines. Each specialist can examine the photographs for the particular data he needs, data all too likely to be omitted or generalized into insignificance when a country is shown on a general map by hand drawn lines and conventional symbols.

This ungeneralized, almost unlimited detail of the photographic record is one of its principal advantages. In fact, even though an engineer makes a survey on the ground and maps it for himself with a special use in mind, in trying to save time and expense he is likely to omit information which would be of great assistance in solving problems which he can not foresee, but which arise later in the course of his work. If the model of the ground furnished by good aerial photographs under a stereoscope be available, he can get this extra information directly from them without another trip to the locality. If he can not do the mapping himself, but has the photographs at hand, he need not fear the inaccuracies and the omissions which creep in when one man interprets and records the terrain upon a map for the use of another.

The area covered by a pair of photographs, even those from modern multilens cameras, is rather small. The photographs may be joined

<sup>1</sup> Prepared for the first assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, Rio de Janeiro, December, 1932.



## A MOSAIC OF AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHS

This small section of a mosaic of Far Rockaway, Long Island, illustrates the method of assembling the photographs preparatory to the actual map making.



Courtesy of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey.

together (after being rectified as may be necessary to a common datum plane) to form a mosaic or composite picture of larger areas. The mosaic retains the photographic detail, but an extra set of prints is necessary if it is desired to use a stereoscope to study the third dimension. Since the photographs are perspectives, any considerable differences of elevation of the terrain cause displacements of position which can be minimized only by a complicated rectification or a large increase in the number of exposures. However, much of the earth is sufficiently level to permit of making satisfactory mosaics. Their photographic detail and the ease with which they are understood by persons unfamiliar with map conventions make mosaics particularly valuable for visualizing certain problems, especially those of tax assessing and city planning. For many purposes for which variations in scale are not important, simple mosaics without rectification are entirely adequate. In fact, in areas where no large scale maps exist, strip mosaics of proposed routes for pipe lines, electric transmission lines, and highways form one of the most important commercial uses of aerial photographs. Simple mosaics can be made at relatively low cost. They insure consideration of all features adjacent to the route. The airplane taking them does not invade private property nor inflate the price of the proposed right of way, unavoidable handicaps of ground surveys.

When exact scale is required for country of appreciable relief, when it is desired to emphasize certain information needed for special purposes and to omit the remaining detail for the sake of clearness, or when the size of the area to be shown on a single sheet becomes large, it is necessary to use line maps. In the few years in which aerial photographs have been available, they have shown certain inherent advantages over ground methods which guarantee their increasing use for making such maps.

In all mapping upon the ground the precision of the resulting product is variable. A few points are located with a high degree of precision. Then there is a large group for which the precision may be characterized as good. Finally, there will be some minor features which, for reasons of economy, are merely sketched or omitted entirely. All this is necessary if the cost of the map is to be kept within reasonable limits. There is a further disadvantage in that this sketching must show the information as if viewed from above, while the topographer usually has only a limited view from the side. On the other hand, when aerial photographs are used for compiling the map, all detail visible from the air may be traced—not sketched—from the photographs with the same precision as the measured control points are plotted. The superior quality of detail thus obtained in maps compiled from aerial photographs is one of their outstanding advantages. Such superiority can not be duplicated by any econom-

ically practicable means upon the ground. It is of such value to the map user for identifying his position on the map in the field that it will undoubtedly cause an increasing demand for aerial surveys as map users become acquainted with it.

A further advantage of aerial photographs is that it is difficult in the compilation of such maps to make gross errors or blunders in measurement. Properly overlapped photographs are as self-checking as a scheme of quadrilaterals in triangulation. At times natural changes are so great as to throw doubt on former ground surveys, whether there were any errors or not. Occasionally changes in the coast line, for instance, are so extraordinary as to cause law suits over the original surveys. If due care be taken with materials and processes, the photographs form a permanent record not likely to be challenged. As a country develops, such records may be of great value in preventing costly legal disputes over boundaries, riparian rights, and land ownership. Data of great usefulness in the study of shore-line and river erosion, the building of deltas, etc., may be obtained from photographs taken at suitable intervals. Here again no map maker's ideas of how the changes came about modifies the photographic record, but each student may approach the data afresh, unhandicapped by the mental slant of those who have measured the data before him.

In governmental surveys the problem of making accurate maps is usually simpler than keeping the maps reasonably up to date. Because of the uniform precision of a map which has been well compiled from aerial photographs, any permanent, well-defined object, such as a building foundation, a road intersection, or a point of rock, becomes in effect a monumented control station for future revisions or resurveys of similar scales. In practically all regions of importance to man a basic aerial photographic survey will show enough permanent detail for the accurate plotting of detached multilens aerial photographs without further ground control. At very low cost such surveys may be kept reasonably up to date as to important detail during the necessarily long interval between complete revisions by using detached aerial photographs. It is seldom that any but the very best of large-scale ground surveys show enough detail with the requisite accuracy for revision by isolated photographs in this manner. However, almost all types of maps based on good ground control, except those of mountainous country, may be revised to advantage by completely rephotographing their area.

There are certain limitations to aerial photographs which may make them less desirable or even quite absurdly expensive at times, particularly for small projects. The most important of these is that practically cloudless weather is necessary for good mapping photographs. In most of the United States such days occur about four





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MOUTH OF THE MAGDALENA RIVER, COLOMBIA.

Aerial photograph taken at intervals are of invaluable aid in the study of changing shore lines and the formation of deltas.

times a month, but in the winter season there may be two or three months without a single favorable day. In all except arid or semi-arid regions the cost of holding a plane and crew in readiness to take advantage of good photographic weather is usually one of the largest factors in the cost of photographs, especially for small projects.

The photographs show only that which is visible from the air. This, of course, limits their usefulness in surveys of tropical jungles so dense that the sky can seldom be seen from the ground. However, even in tropical jungles, the more important rivers and lakes as well as channels through mangrove swamps, can be delineated to advantage.

The use of aerial photographs in mountainous country, where differences in elevations exceed 30 per cent of the flying height, is apparently limited at present to small scale or exploratory surveys, unless the region is of such importance as to warrant the expense of a large scale compilation with a stereoscopic plotting machine. In mountainous terrain, particularly above the timber line where views nearly equal in scope to those from the airplane can often be obtained, terrestrial photographs offer many advantages. The accurately known coordinates, highly corrected lenses of small aperture, the finer grained, slower emulsions of terrestrial photographs give better results than are likely to be obtained in mountainous country from



the air. When a modern stereoscopic plotting machine is available a combination of terrestrial photographs for steep slopes and aerial photographs for the valleys is considered to be best adapted to mountainous country.

A further limitation of aerial photographs is that all names, a very important feature of maps, must be obtained by a field inspection on the ground with the photographs, or taken from those shown on existing maps. A field inspection is nearly always necessary to obtain data for interpreting the photographs if draftsmen unfamiliar with the terrain are to compile the maps. In addition, when extensive areas must be photographed at low cost, a few details desirable on the map ordinarily will not appear clearly in the photographs because of unfavorable light conditions, overhanging trees, or small defects in photographic materials and processes. The filling in of this information, data for interpretation of the photographs, and the names may all be taken care of conveniently while executing the ground control needed for the class of maps to be compiled.

Although aerial photographs make available decided improvements in the accuracy of map detail, they do not as yet offer much toward control surveys. An entirely different class of accuracy is required for map data from that required for the coordination of maps of large areas and for the establishment of monuments marking boundaries or precise distances on the ground. The data shown on the maps or photographs are reduced hundreds or thousands of times, and because of this reduction it becomes impossible to represent positions with high precision. A fine dot on a map or photograph on a scale of 1 : 10,000, for instance, represents two meters on the ground, yet on this scale a map 50 inches long shows only 8 miles of the earth's surface. The grain of the best emulsions at present available which have the high speed necessary for aerial photography is so large, and the effects of haze, of the rapid motion of the airplane, and of indifferent objects at which to point are so great that the probable error of measurements on aerial photographs is generally about 34 microns. On an aerial photograph at 1 : 10,000 scale, this would represent one-third of a meter on the ground. The equivalent error in pointing with a first order theodolite would be about 1 centimeter or about one thirty-fourth the error of the photograph. In addition, it is generally possible to use figures in triangulation which span from 10 to 100 or more of the photographs, since the photographs must be overlapped more than 50 per cent to secure a satisfactory chain of measurements. Even with this tremendous difference in accuracy between triangulation on the ground and from aerial photographs, it is still necessary to adjust ground triangulation when measuring around the boundaries of a State or across the area usually shown on a series of maps. It is evident, therefore, that aerial photographs, while offering



A BRAZILIAN HIGHWAY.

Mountainous regions with great variations in altitude rather limit the usefulness of aerial photographs to small scale or exploratory surveys.

marked improvement in the accuracy with which it is practicable to survey detail for maps, can not as yet dispense with control surveys upon the ground whenever the maps thus made must be coordinated with others or purport to show long distances accurately.

Until recently, aerial photographs have been too expensive to compile as well as to take for thinly inhabited country, or for other areas which can not support much expenditure for surveys. The single-lens vertical photographs cover such small areas that great numbers of them are required for sizeable projects. Such a complete ground control is required for accurate compilation of single-lens photographs as to tend to limit their usefulness to comparatively level areas, or to those areas so thickly settled as to justify the high cost of large-scale surveys and the expense of machine plotting. A notable exception has been the method developed by the Canadians of compiling oblique photographs containing the horizon by superimposed grids. This method is quite efficient for flat country on scales smaller than 1:100,000, but is not adapted to country of considerable relief, such as that bordering most of the Pacific, nor to medium or large scales.

Recently multilens cameras have been developed which promise a solution of the problem of combining accuracy and economy in mapping on medium and small scales from aerial photographs. In the United States, the Army Air Corps has developed a 5-lens camera

of 6-inch (15.2 cm) focal length and 140° field. The camera is a rugged and reliable instrument. On one of its earliest jobs, the first model photographed without a single failure a project for the Coast and Geodetic Survey, which required over 400 photographs with a 10-second exposure interval. The camera produces a composite photograph in the form of a maltese cross 32 inches wide, which covers a mile of ground for each thousand feet of elevation of the airplane. Thirty-six hundred square miles were recently photographed with this camera in less than three hours on a scale of 1:40,000 at a



Courtesy of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey.

#### A 4-LENS CAMERA FOR AERIAL MAPPING.

A similar camera was used in the aerial survey of the territory involved in the Guatemalan-Honduran boundary controversy. A total of 1,300 photographs were made of an area of 2,470 square miles.

cost of only 20 cents per square mile for operating expenses and photographic materials. The tremendous span of these photographs permits more accurate orientation of the photographs with fewer adjustments and a proportionately increased spacing of ground control. These advantages mean that increased economy in mapping as well as in photography is made possible by this camera.

Recently the Special Boundary Tribunal, appointed to arbitrate the boundary question between the Republics of Guatemala and Honduras, ordered the photographing and mapping of a section of the disputed territory. Adequate topographical information did not



exist in this area, which is very rugged and in many places sparsely inhabited. The topographic relief in the area ranged from sea level to over 7,000 feet. The aerial method of surveying was chosen as the quickest way of supplying the needed information and, in addition, its low cost was an important factor. The United States Army Air Corps photographed the project, using a 4-lens camera, which is somewhat similar to the newer 5-lens camera with the exception that the advance wing photograph is omitted. In all, 1,300 photographs covering 6,500 square kilometers were made at an elevation of 13,000 feet above sea level, giving an approximate sea level photographic scale of 1:24,000. Photography was completed in 31 days, though flying was considerably handicapped by the rainy season.

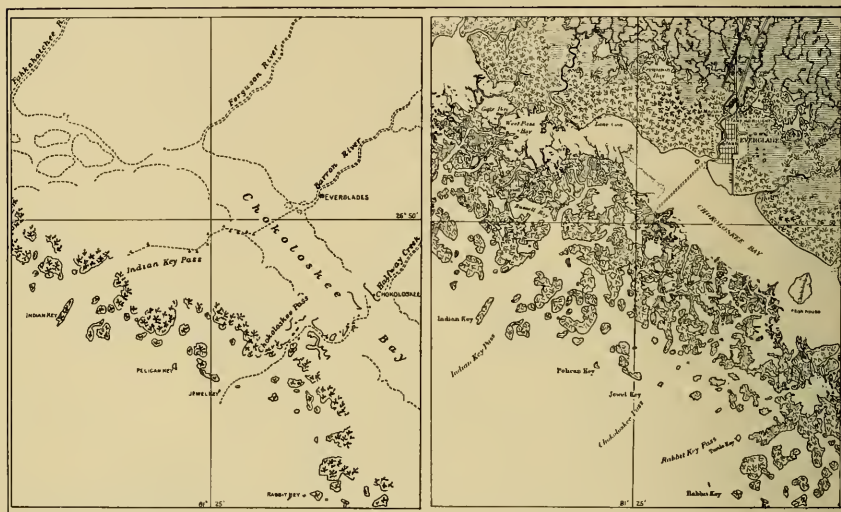
The photographs were studied stereoscopically and matched in strip mosaics. Line maps, showing the culture and drainage data traced from the strip mosaics, were assembled on a scale of 1:100,000. Existing maps supplemented by additional ground control were used as the base for map compilation. The maps and photographs were used by the tribunal in studying the topographical and culture conditions in critical areas and also to mark and describe the line of award. The ground control work was started in August 1932, the maps and photographs were delivered to the tribunal in December, and the award was rendered on January 23, 1933. The maps were annexed to and made a part of the award.

In Europe there has been developed a 9-lens camera of 5.35 centimeters focal length and the same scope as the 5-lens. If the detailed information available on aerial photographs at scales of 1:40,000 and larger can be dispensed with, as perhaps it may to advantage for small-scale maps of undeveloped areas, the short focal length of this camera offers lower costs for photographic materials and increased ease of compiling. But when one reflects that on a 1:100,000 scale an object 100 meters in size occupies only one-tenth of a millimeter on the photograph, the extent to which detail is generalized or disappears on such photographs may be comprehended. Since one of the chief advantages of aerial photographs is the large amount of detailed information they afford, the sacrifice of much of this information by the short focal length of this 9-lens camera would not appear to be justified except when the funds for photographic materials and for reduction of maps are very limited and small-scale maps only are desired.

Another European camera has four lenses of 13.5 centimeter focal length and a field of 83°. The manufacturer has also recently announced the adaptation of his stereoplanigraph machine to plot the whole field of this 4-lens camera without special adjustments for the several chambers. This should greatly increase the efficiency of the combined product of machine and camera. Until recently



machine methods of plotting maps cost more than the graphic radial line methods combined with contouring on the plane table or form line sketching between spot heights, except for country difficult of access and important enough to require contours rather than form lines. So large an investment for machines and trained personnel is required that a considerable amount of important work must be in prospect to justify their use. However, such improvements as the adaptation of the machines to the use of multilens photographs with only one setting and the simplification of their adjustments, optics, and mechanical movements will probably greatly extend the field of economic usefulness of the machine method of plotting in the future.



Courtesy of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey.

#### MAPPING FROM THE AIR MORE ECONOMICAL.

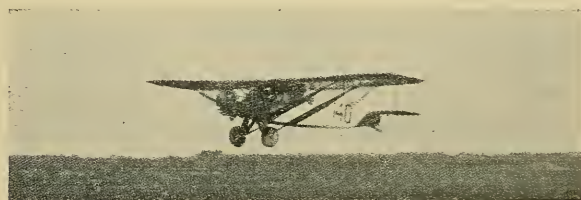
The plane table map at left and the air-photograph map at right with its vast amount of detail were made at approximately the same cost.

When considering the use of aerial photographs for mapping operations of large scope, it is important to keep in mind that photographs taken with a carefully adjusted and calibrated camera may be compiled by several different methods in turn, each method furnishing a special map which meets a particular need with the greatest economy. For example, the area may be photographed at minimum expense with a multilens camera, and a rough mosaic or a small-scale reconnaissance map may first be compiled. This preliminary work will show, let us say, that there is a good water power site, some fertile country worth developing, and two or three practicable routes for highway or railroad to this region. Diapositives on glass may be made from the films of the water-power site, and with a little extra

ground control, if a plotting machine be available, 5-foot contours may be drawn. Similarly, study of extra prints under the stereoscope will probably be sufficient to select the best general route for the highway. If much grading will be necessary, as for a railroad, a strip of photographs on a larger scale may be taken of the best route and 2-foot contours drawn with the plotting machine. In the meantime, the plotting of a topographic base map by the radial-line method may be going forward. Fairly good contours may be sketched from the photographs under a stereoscope between a number of spot heights obtained on the ground, or sheets showing the planimetric detail may be contoured in the field on a plane table, whichever method may be better adapted to the personnel of the organization and to the terrain. The completed base map may then be used to advantage for overprints showing the forestation, the types of soils, geological data, and similar information.

This discussion of mapping from the air of course applies only to the present. In no aspect of the subject is this statement more pertinent than to a discussion of costs in time and funds. In general, where the highest accuracy is required and the terrain is quite accessible, these costs seem to average about one-fourth less for aerial photographic surveys made with trained personnel and adequate equipment than for plane-table work on the ground. If the requirements for accuracy of position be relaxed or if the terrain becomes inaccessible, the saving of the photographic methods in time and money increases many fold. There are numerous areas such as mangrove swamps, deltas with complicated waterways, and forested hills where no other method of adequate mapping is economically practicable. With the reduction in costs to be expected from the future development of multilens cameras and of aviation, the opinion is hazarded that practically all the lands of this earth will be recorded on aerial photographs before the end of the present century.

Be that as it may, the use of aerial photographs in mapping now offers economy of time and money for sizable projects, a permanent record without omissions or blunders, and more exact and practically unlimited detail, all of which are important contributions.



## BRAZILIAN VISITORS TO THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

TO the Pan American Union fell the privilege of receiving on September 6, 1933, a group of about 130 Brazilians on a cultural visit to the United States. The Touring Club of Brazil had organized the trip, and the distinguished citizens who composed the party were traveling under the leadership of Dr. Paulo de Magalhães who, besides being director of *Cinetheatro*, in Rio de Janeiro, is also well known as a playwright, attorney, and journalist.

Rarely does this home of the American Republics have the pleasure of welcoming so large a group of citizens from any one country. Indeed, it was as if a bit of Brazil had been transferred into its midst. The Hall of the Americas, where the guests were received by Dr. Rowe, the Director General of the Pan American Union, and members of the staff, hummed to the musical sound of Portuguese, pleasant indeed to the ears of those who love the beautiful language of Camões and Alencar. After a speech of warm welcome by Dr. Rowe, the guests were shown over the building; at the conclusion of their visit, a talking picture, in which greetings were exchanged between the Director General and Dr. Magalhães, was taken of the group, for distribution in Brazil.

That evening the travelers were special guests at a concert of Latin American music upon the esplanade of the Union. In their honor, therefore, and also in honor of the Brazilian Independence Day which, through a happy coincidence, fell upon the following day, there were included in the program several favorite Brazilian pieces, notably selections from operas by Carlos Gomes, the great Brazilian composer, and the Brazilian national anthem. The renditions of the Brazilian selections by the United States Navy Band and by the vocal soloist of the evening, Señor Hector Lara of Mexico, was vigorously greeted by the visitors, with prolonged applause and enthusiastic *bravos*.

On the following afternoon, their national holiday, the group was entertained by the Brazilian Ambassador, His Excellency R. de Lima e Silva, and in the evening they reciprocated with a dinner to him, at which Dr. Rowe was also a guest.

An interesting feature of the group was the large number of men and women it contained outstanding in the fields of letters, science, education, and public affairs, all of whom were eager to obtain the greatest amount of information possible in their respective spheres.





BRAZILIAN VISITORS TO THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.

The United States was the country selected for this year's annual trip organized by the Touring Club of Brazil, which was taken by a group of 127 Brazilians.

So after two days of intensive sightseeing, the members of the tour divided into smaller units according to their respective interests.

A large party of physicians, accompanied by Dr. Bolivar J. Lloyd, assistant to the Director of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, visited a number of institutions in Washington, including the Mount Alto Veteran's Hospital; Garfield Hospital, where the X-ray and radium work proved of particular interest; Walter Reed Military Hospital; the Episcopal Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat Hospital; and the National Institute of Health. A group of teachers, accompanied by Miss Heloise Brainerd, Chief of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union, visited the National Education Association; the Progressive Education Association; the National Congress of Parents and Teachers; the Association for Childhood Education; the World Federation of Educational Associations; the Washington Child Research Center; a private nursery school; and the United States Office of Education. The engineers and architects who were members of the party included in their visits the Bureau of Standards, with which they were very much impressed. During their entire stay, members of the party were assisted by members of the staff of the Portuguese edition of the BULLETIN.

Washington almost outdid itself in an effort to provide blue skies and warm days for its southern visitors, who, having just experienced an extremely cold winter in their own country, were pleasantly surprised at the warmth of what they expected to be the beginning of our northern autumn.

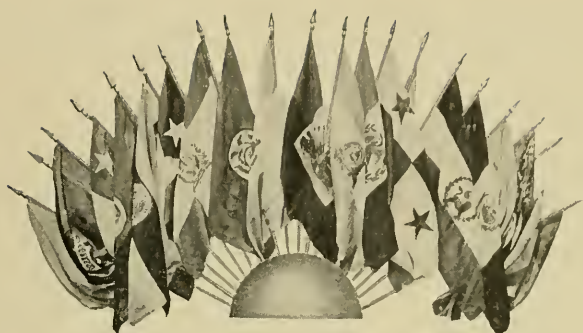


The distinguished travelers left Washington on September 8, by special train. At the Union Station, to bid them *bon voyage*, were the Brazilian Ambassador and members of his staff, the Director General and officials of the Pan American Union, and other friends and well-wishers.

The Touring Club of Brazil was organized for the purpose of facilitating travel in all parts of the world, and includes in its program a visit to at least one foreign country annually. This year the Century of Progress Exposition in Chicago provided a powerful incentive to make the United States the goal, although travel to this country possesses natural attraction for the Brazilians. In this respect, one of the group, Dr. Mario Accioly, a lawyer from Rio de Janeiro, said, "The political and economic *rapprochement* between the United States and Brazil is an accomplished fact. We Brazilians clearly feel this to be the case as we go through the country; only one thing remains to be done—the shortening of the distance between the two nations by a fast steamship line or by the realization of the projected inter-continental railroad, which we all fervently desire."

The travelers arrived in Washington after a week in New York and Philadelphia, and left for Chicago, where they were to spend a week at the Century of Progress. Then the group will divide, some members returning to New York via Detroit and Niagara Falls, others visiting the Pacific coast before sailing. Still others plan to extend their stay in the United States in the interests of their respective activities. Among these are Dr. Magalhães, who, as president of the Professional Actors Syndicate of Rio de Janeiro, will proceed to Hollywood to supervise the making of films with Brazilian stars; Senhora Celina Padilha, Federal Inspector of Public Instruction in Rio de Janeiro and Secretary of the Federation of the National Education Societies, who will spend 1 or 2 months in intensive investigation into American educational methods; and Senhorinha Maria Delphina Cardoso, Federal Inspector of Instruction in São Paulo, who will visit secondary schools and study methods in anticipation of the establishment of a model secondary school in São Paulo. The brilliant young woman journalist Nair Mesquita, the owner and editor of *Vanitas*, a weekly magazine published in São Paulo, is seeking first-hand impressions of the United States.





## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*News from American libraries.*—On June 24, the *Biblioteca Argentina para Ciegos* (Argentine Library for the Blind) celebrated the anniversary of its founding. In the morning members of the board of trustees and invited guests placed a wreath on the grave of the poetess, Vicenta Castro Cambón, the founder of the institution. In the afternoon friends of the institution gathered in the auditorium of the library to hear an address by Dr. Augustín C. Rebuffo. The library contains 5,000 volumes in Braille. An exhibition and sale of handicraft of the blind concluded the celebration.

A reading room for working people has been opened in the *Biblioteca Nacional* in Santiago, Chile. It bears the name of a great friend of labor, Fermín Vivaceta.

The cornerstone of the *Biblioteca Nacional* of Colombia, which is being erected in the Plaza de la Independencia in Bogotá was laid on August 7. Dr. Daniel Samper Ortega, the librarian, delivered the principal address.

*Pamphlet for distribution.*—The Columbus Memorial Library has received a few copies of *Mineral resources and mining regulations of Colombia*, published by the Department of Mines and Petroleum of the Ministry of Industries, Bogotá, 1933, for free distribution as long as the supply lasts.

*Book exposition in Buenos Aires.*—The *Museo Nacional de Bellas Artes* is planning a book exposition to be held in October. It will graphically describe the history of the book from the earliest times to the present day. There will be a course of lectures on the entire book craft, and many rare volumes will be displayed.



Courtesy of "Cromos"

## THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF COLOMBIA, BOGOTA

The cornerstone of this modern building, designed to house adequately the National Library and Archives, was laid August 7, 1933.

*New books and magazines.*—The following list has been compiled from the books which have been received during the past month:

*La ganadería argentina y su comercio de carnes*, [por] Juan E. Richelet. Buenos Aires, J. Lajouane & cía., 1928. 333 p. 23½ cm.

*La jaula vacía, el bibelot y otros cuentos*, por Camilo Cruz Santos. San José, Editorial Alsina, 1930. 165 p. 22 cm.

*La rueca de la sonrisa* [por] Pedro Moreno Garzón. Caracas, Lit. y tip. Vargas, 1930. 144 p. front. 20 cm.

*El ferrocarril inter-continental pan-americano; su estado actual*, por Santiago Marín Vicuña . . . Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1933. 130 p. fold. maps. 26 cm.

*La nacionalidad de la mujer casada*, memoria presentada por Aníbal Matte Pinto . . . Santiago de Chile, Imprenta "El Imparcial", 1933. 76 p. 25½ cm.

*Anuario agropecuario*, año 1932, [compilado por la] Dirección de economía rural y estadística, de la Ministerio de agricultura de la República Argentina. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos del Ministerio de agricultura de la nación, 1932. 425 p. fold. maps, tables, diagrs. (part. fold.). 26 cm.

*Naval air pilot*, Mexico, corrected to May 1, 1933 . . . issued by the Hydrographic Office under the authority of the Secretary of the Navy. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1933. 95 p. illus., col. maps (part. fold.). 23 cm. [Contents: pt. 1. General information concerning routes, distances, regulations, etc.; pt. 2. Detailed information on seaplane anchorages and landing fields.]

*Historia de Morón*, con datos geográficos y apéndices, por el Dr. Pedro G. Subirats y Quesada . . . Habana, Imp. de Cultural, s.a., 1929. 167 p. front. (port.), ports, fold. maps. 23 cm.

*Guanina*, novela de costumbres siboneyas [por Pedro G. Subirats y Quesada]. [Habana, Imprenta P. Fernández y ca.] 1926. front. (port.), illus. 18 cm.

*Estética de la tragedia mexicana* [por] Felix F. Palavicini. Mexico [Imprenta Modelo] 1933. 190 p., plates. 22½ cm.

*Anuario catalano-balear*; mitología, historia, geografía, artes, letras, demotismo, efemérides hespéricas de enero a junio [por] Antonio Cursach Truyol. Buenos Aires, J. J. Rosso [n.d.] 175 p. illus., col. plates (part. fold.) ports. (part col.) 29 cm.

*Tópicos bolivarianos*; glosas al "Diario de Bucaramanga," por Monseñor Nicolás E. Navarro . . . Caracas, Tipografía Americana, 1933. 137 p. 22½ cm.

*Economía y reseña histórica de los ferrocarriles del Perú*. [Publicación de la Dirección de obras públicas y vías de comunicación del Ministerio de fomento de la República del Perú] [Lima, Imprenta Torres Aguirre] 1932. 89 p. port., tables (part. fold.) 25 cm.

*Iconografía de próceres argentinos*; información biográfica, por José Juna Biedma. Buenos Aires, 1932. 181 p. ports. 19 cm.

*Proemio para la obra de don Alberto Edwards "El gobierno de Don Manuel Montt"* [por] Luis Barros Borgoño. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1933. 252 p. 19½ cm.

*La poesía de Julio Herrera y Reissig*. Sus temas y su estilo, por el Dr. Y. Pino Saavedra. Santiago. Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1932. 148 p. 23½ cm.

*Consultor práctico de la legislación chilena del trabajo* . . . por Armando Rojas Valenzuela y Alberto Ruiz de Gamboa A. . . . Santiago, Imprenta Nascimento, 1933. 382 p. 27 cm.

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*The Venezuelan commercial review*. Liverpool, England, 1933. 12 p. 27½ x 29 cm. Vol. 1, no. 1, July 24, 1933. Irregular. Address: Consulate-general of Venezuela in Liverpool, North House, North John Street, Liverpool, 2, England.

*El Tribuno*; bisemanario liberal radical. Quito, 1933. 8 p. 40 x 30 cm. Año I, núm. 18, julio de 1933. Bi-weekly. Editor: Sr. J. M. Sánchez Carrión. Address: Mejía n.º. 41, Quito, Ecuador.

*El derecho*; publicación del Centro de estudiantes de notario. Montevideo, 1933. 69 p. 24 x 17 cm. Año XII, nos. 1-3, 1933. Address: Calle Colonia 1800, Montevideo, Uruguay.

*Revista de derecho y ciencias sociales*; órgano de la Facultad de jurisprudencia de la Universidad Central. Quito, 1933. p. [113]-174. 27½ x 19 cm. Tomo 1, núm. 3, junio de 1933. Monthly. Address: Secretaría de la Universidad Central, Apartado núm. 166, Quito, Ecuador.

*Revista de educação*; órgão do Departamento de educação do estado de São Paulo. São Paulo, 1933. 296 p. 25 x 17 cm. Vol. 1, n.º. 1, março 1933. Quarterly. Address: Departamento de educação, Praça João Mendes, São Paulo, Brasil.

*Revista de la Asociación médica panamericana*; órgano oficial de la Asociación medica panamericana. Habana, Cuba, 1933. Año 1, 2ª epoca, no. 1, julio de 1933. 56 p. ports. 24 x 15½ cm. Editor: Sebastián Figueras. Monthly. Address: Panamerican medical press, inc., Apartado no. 994, Habana, Cuba.

"*Crisálida*"; revista quincenal, órgano del Ateneo "Rubén Bermúdez". San Pedro Sula, Honduras, 1933. Año I, número 1, 1.º de agosto de 1933. 24 p. illus., ports. 16½ x 20 cm. Semi-monthly. Address: "Crisálida," San Pedro Sula, Honduras.

*La fraternidad*, publicación internacional; boletín del Instituto hispanoamericano del relaciones culturales. Madrid. 2.ª época, número 2. 24 p. 24 x 17



cm. Irregular. Address: Instituto hispanoamericano de relaciones culturales, General Castaños, núm. 5, Madrid.

*Revista agrícola del Tolima*; órgano mensual de la Sociedad de agricultores del Tolima. Ibagué, Colombia, 1933. Volumen I, número 2, julio de 1933. p. [27]-50. illus. 24 x 17 cm. Editor: Lic. Bernardo Ortiz G. Monthly. Address: Sociedad de agricultores del Tolima, Ibagué, Departamento del Tolima, República de Colombia.

*Alma nacional*; revista mensual de educación. Medellín, Colombia, 1933. Volumen I, número 1, 1.º de agosto de 1933. 24 p. 24½ x 17 cm. Monthly. Address: Medellín, Departamento de Antioquia, República de Colombia.

*Educación*; órgano de la Facultad de educación de la Universidad Nacional. Bogotá, 1933. Año I, número 1.º agosto 1933. 64 p. 24 x 17½ cm. Editor: Arcadio Dulcey. Monthly. Address: Facultad de educación de la Universidad nacional, Bogotá, República de Colombia.

*O solo*; revista do Centro agricola Luiz de Queiroz (dos academicos de agromonia) Piracicaba, Brasil, 1933. Anno xxv, nos. 3-4, março-abril 1933. 71 p., illus., port. tables. 23 x 16 cm. Bimonthly. Editor: Luiz Aristeo Nucci. Address: Centro agricola Luiz de Queiroz, Piracicaba, Brasil.

*Senda*, revista de ciencias, letras y arte; órgano de la Escuela normal nacional "Alejandro Carbo." Córdoba, Argentina. N.º. 1, julio 1932. 44 p. illus. 32 x 23½ cm. Monthly. Address: Colón, 950, Córdoba, República Argentina.

*El gráfico económico*; semanario comercial, bursátil y financiero. Santiago de Chile, 1933. N.º 1, 5 de junio de 1933. 20 p. tables, diagrs. 27 x 18½ cm. Weekly. Address: Casilla 13224, Santiago de Chile.

*La escuela costarricense*, revista pedagógica mensual; órgano de la Secretaría de educación pública. San José, 1933. Año II, n.º. 8, 15 de febrero de 1933. 20 x 13½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Moisés Vincenzi. Address: Secretaría de educación pública, San José, Costa Rica.

*Revista tabaco*; órgano de publicidad de la "Alianza tabacalera." Habana, Cuba, 1933. Año I, número 4, julio de 1933. 20 p. 31½ x 24 cm. Monthly. Editor: José Rivero Muñiz. Address: Aldama (Amistad) 88, altos, Habana, Cuba.

*Boletín demográfico municipal de la ciudad de Lima*. Lima, Peru, 1932. Año I, no. 1, enero, febrero y marzo de 1932. 36 p. tables. 31½ x 23½ cm. Quarterly. Address: Inspección de estadística y demografía del Concejo provincial de Lima. Lima, Peru.

*Revista ganadera*; revista ilustrada de ganadería, industrias rurales, conocimientos útiles e información, y de defensa de los intereses pecuarios del Perú. Lima, Perú, 1933. Año III, no. 33. 54 p. illus., tables. 35 x 25 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Fabio Camacho. Address: Asociación de ganaderos del Perú, Apartado 377, Lima, Perú.



# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENTATION IN PERU

Peru is a country of great potential agricultural wealth whose fullest development depends upon careful training and research both in agricultural schools and in experiment stations. Although this fact had long been recognized, early attempts to found such institutions met with failure until the establishment of the National School of Agriculture and Veterinary Science in Lima, founded in 1901 and opened the following year. Technical training and experimentation began together and have developed side by side; in the next 10 years 6 experiment stations, specializing in as many products, were established. The first was a grape and wine service, established in 1903 and composed of an enological laboratory and a vineyard where native and imported varieties of grapes were studied; at first a branch of the agricultural school, it was made independent in 1906 as the Enological Experiment Station of Lima, with substations at Moquegua and Ica. In 1906, too, the Sugarcane Experiment Station was opened, followed in 1907 by a meteorological station, the forerunner of the present national meteorological service; in 1908 by the Laboratory of Agricultural Microbiology, to make ferments, serums, and vaccines; in 1909 by the Cotton Experiment Station, the Animal Husbandry Station, and the Bureau of Forestry and Horticulture. In 1911 all these activities were combined in a single organization called the Central Agricultural Station and put under the supervision of the director of the agricultural school. During the next 20 years there were few changes, although one or two—the Animal Husbandry Experiment Station and the enological substations—ceased to function.

The three most important institutions for many years were the Sugarcane Experiment, the Animal Husbandry, and the Cotton Experiment Stations. The first studied among other things the different valleys of the Republic, to ascertain those best adapted for cane growing; the varieties of cane, to decide which were most suitable for introduction in the country; systems of planting and irrigation; cane diseases and proper measures to avoid and combat them; kinds of mills and the most profitable uses for by-products and residuum; the organization of experiment fields on private estates, where such service was requested; tests and analyses of soils, water, by-products, and fertilizers; free consultation, information, and analysis for canegrowers;

propaganda, by means of public lectures, circulars, and bulletins, for free distribution to all interested in the sugargrowing; and the compilation of special statistics on the subject.

The Animal Industry Station was established to study the native stock; to import and breed specimens of different foreign species and breeds to ascertain which might be most easily acclimated and most valuable in improving existing species in the country; to experiment with forage crops; to help stockbreeders in their choice of sires, methods of breeding, treatment of animals, and the hygienic measures necessary to improve the condition of flocks and herds; to increase practical knowledge of approved dairy methods; to inform owners of the best breeds of barnyard animals, offering specimens for sale and showing how to obtain the best results in the production of eggs, meat, feathers, etc.; and to establish a stud service.

The Cotton Experiment Station was founded to improve the cultivation of cotton in Peru, and its specific duties included: the study both of conditions in the different valleys where cotton is grown and of the methods of cultivation followed in each region; the establishment of branches where tests and experiments might be carried out under local conditions; the scientific study of each variety of cotton at present cultivated and the introduction and acclimatization of new ones; the free distribution of seeds; experiments with agricultural machinery, fertilizers, and the rotation of cotton with leguminous crops; the establishment of a consultation bureau for cotton growers; the study of noxious weeds; the distribution through the Ministry of Promotion of bulletins or circulars containing reports of experiments carried out, the results obtained, and recommendations to farmers.

These experiment organizations are those through which scientific experimentation was carried on in Peru for many years and information about best methods of work and the treatment of parasitical diseases were made available. The results have been truly gratifying, for many of the recommended procedures have become commonplaces in the rural districts. Through these institutions, too, new and better varieties of plants, especially sugarcane and cotton, have been introduced; but unfortunately in many cases they were not grown long enough to become acclimated, so that the results of such introduction have been negligible.

During the last few years new experiment stations regional in scope have been founded. The Puno Farm has done valuable work in improving the breeding of wool-bearing animals in the southern mountains; the Tumbes Station experiments with tobacco cultivation in the northern coastal regions; the Lambayeque Station carries on experiments and demonstrations, especially with rice, and has a meteorological station in that high northern valley; and the Piura

Agricultural Station has become one of the most important of the Republic.

During the 3 years 1929-31, the Commission for Promoting the Cultivation of Wheat increased and broadened its labors. The three matters especially undertaken by the commission were the study of wheat cultivation (1) on tablelands over 1,300 feet high, (2) on hills where the only water supply comes from the heavy daily mists, and (3) along the coast, where it has been abandoned because of the presence of fungus diseases. The work in the coastal regions, as well as the introduction of selected varieties in the districts already under cultivation in the mountains, proved especially valuable, for it has been most effective in the present agricultural crisis.

One of the newest and most important of the experiment stations in Peru was established in 1929 on the 150-acre farm "La Molina", near Lima. According to Law No. 5556, under which it was created, it was to be under the direction of the National Agrarian Society, and funds for its maintenance were to be provided from special taxes. From the beginning, the station has done special cotton, wheat, and sugar research of great importance. Recently its administration was taken over by the Bureau of Agriculture and Animal Industry, a step in the program of unifying national experimentation.

These institutions set standards and awakened in many trained agronomists an appreciation of the value of experimental work; but the difficulty of following one specialty long enough, because of transference from one station to another, prevented them from becoming experts in any one subject, and such experts are necessary for the advancement of scientific knowledge. Since July 24, 1931, however, all assistant agronomists in experiment stations and on regional agricultural committees have been required to spend 2 years in research at La Molina before being eligible for executive positions.

In a recent number of the *Boletín* of the Bureau of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, Sr. José D. Valdivieso, director of the Bureau, gives, in addition to the brief history of experimentation in the Republic, an outline of the problems facing agriculture and the measures proposed to solve them. Work will be continued on the Agro-soil Map of Peru; this project, when completed, will provide information on climate zones and on soil, water, and other conditions for analogous agricultural zones. The new system of training specialists will put in experiment stations and administrative positions men whose theoretical knowledge is reinforced by practical experience. The value of experiment stations will be increased by the work of agricultural stations, where more laboratory and other scientific research may be carried on.—B. N.



## TWELVE YEARS OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN URUGUAY

The Superior Council for Industrial Education (Consejo Superior de la Enseñanza Industrial), established by the law of July 12, 1916, has been carrying forward in Uruguay the work of vocational preparation begun by the former School of Crafts and Trades. In a recent publication, *Trabajo*, the president of the council, which functions under the Ministry of Industries, summarized in his annual report its accomplishments for the 12 years 1920-32.

At the end of that period there were 19 schools functioning under the council. Four of them are in Montevideo, and the others in San José, Canelones, Rivera, Salto, San Carlos, Florida, Mercedes, Rocha, Melo, Paysandú, Maldonado, Colonia Suiza, Carmelo, Trinidad, and Trienta y Tres. Special instruction in vocational subjects is also given at other schools in Montevideo and at Cardona, Constitución, Santa Lucía, Bolívar, and Tacuarembó. At the schools in Montevideo courses are given in applied arts; printing and binding; dressmaking; lacemaking; commercial art; ceramics; wickerwork; modeling and masonry; draftsmanship; house painting; carpentry; blacksmithing; mechanics; electrical mechanics; and similar subjects. In the schools in other parts of the nation, to these subjects are added others related to agricultural industries and cooperative undertakings, according to the needs of the region. The school buildings are modern and well constructed, and the instruction is thorough and conscientious. The efforts of the councils are directed to filling one of the country's basic needs—increased numbers of skilled workmen. The periodic exhibits of students' work, ranging from motors to cheeses, have met with the approval and warm praise of the public.

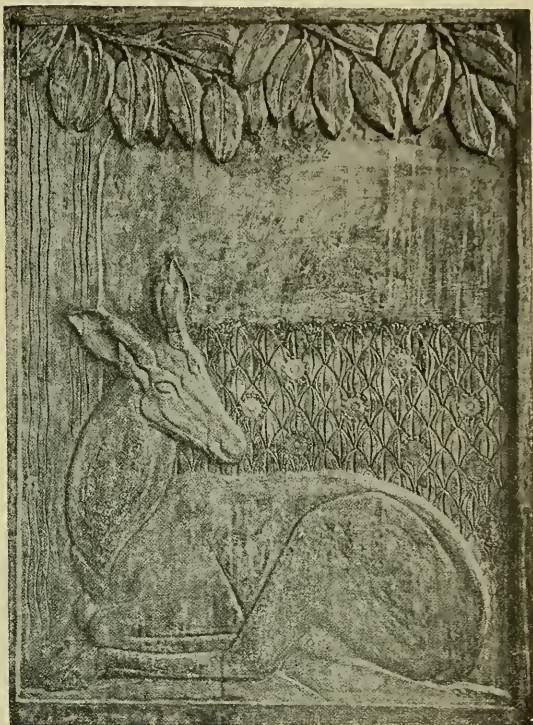
Great care is exercised in selecting the teaching staff of these institutions. The National Teachers College (Escuela Normal de Maestros y Profesores), offers the aspirants to such positions special preparatory courses. The instructors are appointed, except in special circumstances, by competitive examination, and no appointment is confirmed until after a year's service, so that satisfactory proof may be had of every teacher's capability. The diversity in training and experience of the instructors in these schools shows the latitude of the council in selecting the personnel, which is made up of teachers who have received special preparation at the Teachers College, civil and agricultural engineers, architects and other professional men, and master craftsmen who have received practical training in some industrial activity.

The law that created the council also provided that, for all boys from 14 to 17 years of age not receiving other education, at least nine hours a week of industrial training, except in cases of physical disability or lack of schools or facilities in the district, should be obligatory. The boys may attend either day or evening classes.

The Council for Vocational Training has been studying, within the limits of its authority, the subject of vocational guidance, and expects to publish in a few years the results of its research. It has

#### LOW RELIEF.

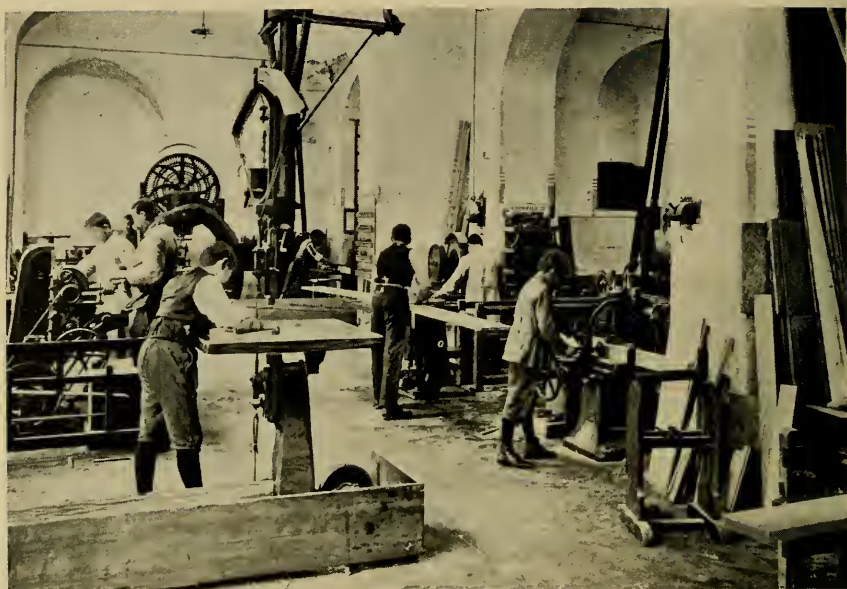
This interesting piece of work, designed and modeled by a woman student of Industrial School No. 1 in Montevideo, has been reproduced in cement to decorate the home of an Uruguayan artist.



Courtesy of "Trabajo."

recently inaugurated a Department of Vocational Guidance and Selection, to which a great deal of importance is attached.

In the rural districts, the council has been active in the formation of agricultural cooperative societies, employing as a nucleus for such organizations its various scientific-agricultural schools. Societies of this character have already been established at Melo, San Carlos, and Colonia Suiza. In the last place, the dairy school so successfully operated by the council is developing into a fermentation and investigation laboratory. The fact is worthy of note that it was through the efforts of this school that the production of cheese from pasteurized



CLASS IN MECHANICS.

According to law, all boys from 14 to 17 years of age not receiving other education must have at least 9 hours a week of industrial training.

milk was begun in the country. This is one of the measures that have enabled producers to make substantial savings. Other cooperative societies are now in process of formation in various parts of the country.

Some of the developments contemplated by the council include the establishment of new agricultural schools, provided with the necessary equipment for the manufacture of agricultural and dairy products, and the enlargement of schools already in existence. These improvements are soon to be carried out at Flores, San José, Durazno, Florida, Concordia, and Agraciada. This work, which will be done with the aid of local agriculturists, will have as its basis the formation of cooperative societies. Other proposed developments are the creation of establishments for the manufacture of agricultural and dairy products at Melo, Mercedes, and San Carlos, and the formation of a Department of Home Economics and Child Training at the school for women in Montevideo.

During the last twelve years, with an annual appropriation from the Government which has grown from 169,068 pesos in 1920 to 294,244 pesos in 1932, the Council for Vocational Training has not only performed a most commendable constructive task of remarkable proportions but has also increased its assets from 300,000 to 952,512 pesos.—A. C.





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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



COAT OF ARMS OF CARTAGENA  
COLOMBIA

NOVEMBER

1933

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR



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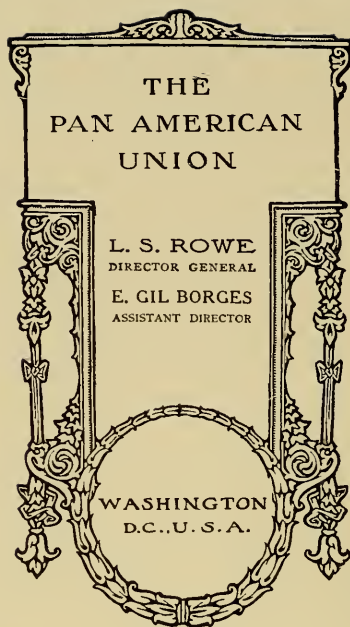
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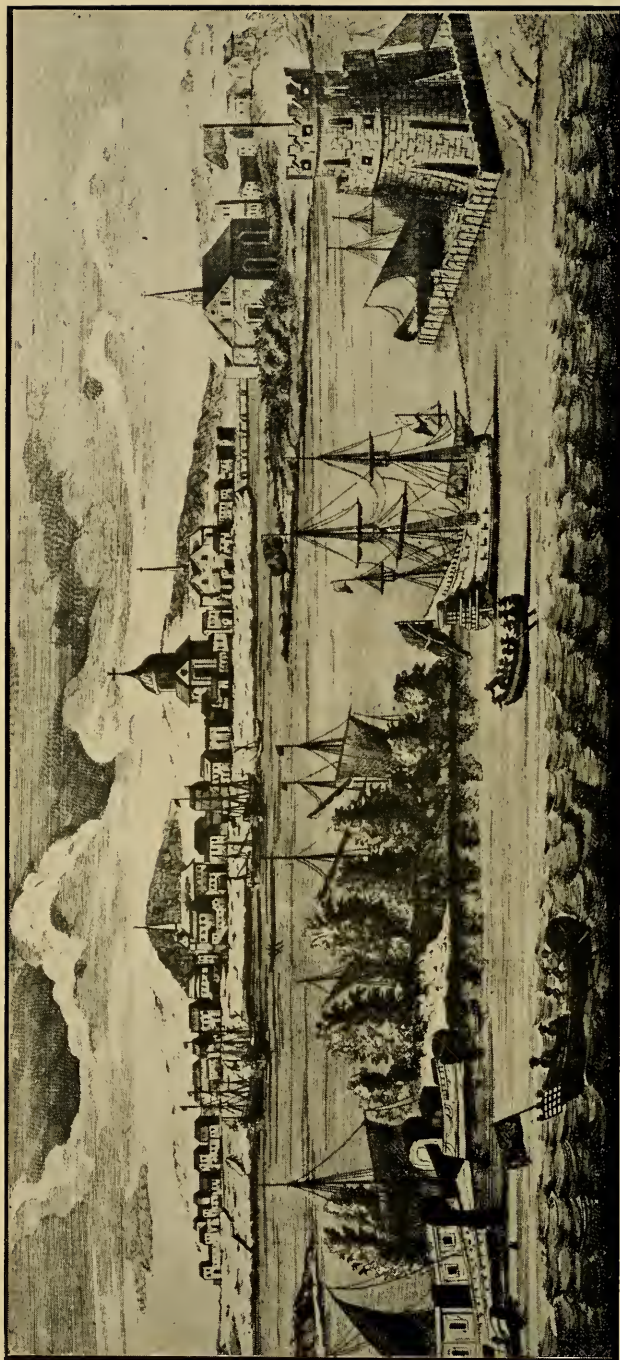
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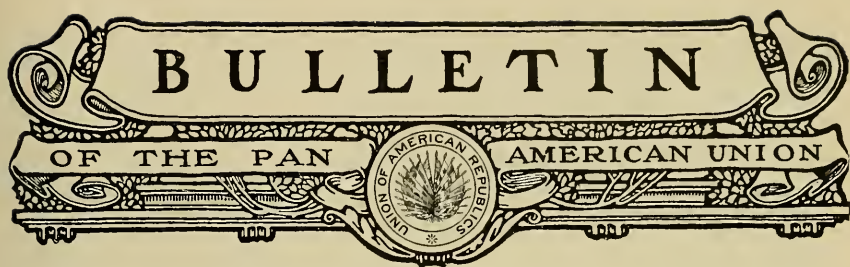




Courtesy of "The Grace Log."

#### CARTAGENA OF TWO CENTURIES AGO.

Cartagena was a strongly fortified city when attacked in 1741 by the English fleet under Admiral Vernon. Its ability to withstand this lengthy attack and others during the War of Independence with Spain, gave it the well-deserved title of "Heroic City." Today, while one of the most progressive and hospitable cities of Colombia, it preserves much of its colonial character.



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VOL. LXVII

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No. 11

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## THE QUADRICENTENNIAL OF THE FOUNDING OF CARTAGENA DE INDIAS

By ENRIQUE CORONADO SUÁREZ

*Assistant Editor, Boletín de la Unión Panamericana*

FOUR centuries of glory, of vicissitudes, and of heroic deeds were recalled to present generations by the recent quadricentennial of the Colombian city of Cartagena de Indias, one of the oldest in America, a sacred shrine enclosing within its walls and bastions evidences of an illustrious past. Founded on January 20, 1533, by Pedro de Heredia, one of the most cultured of those daring conquistadors who acquired rich and extensive lands for the Spanish Crown, it has carved on the lasting marble of history a noble epic of valor.

Nations proudly render homage to the memory of the illustrious heroes and great men who have given them glory and liberty, men who with their swords and by their genius have written the names of their countries on the roster of civilized communities of the world. But nations are also proud to pay tribute to the cities where their glorious history began, cities in which leading patriots first saw the light of day, and where they developed the abilities contributing later to the progress of the fatherland.

The year 1933 is a memorable one for the Republic of Colombia, because four centuries ago the Bay of Cartagena was entered by a few small ships which, under the command of the noble Spaniard Pedro de Heredia had sailed from the remote shores of San Lúcar de Barrameda and reached these fertile shores after a hazardous crossing of four months.

The intrepid conquistador, accompanied by other dignitaries and a hundred captains, laid claim to the vast regions he had discovered, and immediately set off in search of an appropriate site for

the city which was to be the seat of his government. After several days spent in examining the Caribbean coast and exploring the banks of the Magdalena River, he decided to return to the place where he had landed, considering it ideal for the purpose he had in mind. There, in the name of His Majesty Charles V, he decided on January 20, 1533, to found the great city to which Philip the Prudent granted the appropriate title "Very Noble and Very Loyal."

The new settlement, originally a tiny Indian village called Calamar, was named after the city of Cartagena on the Mediterranean coast of Spain, because of the similarity of contour between the two ports. As a Colombian writer has well said, "It would have been difficult for Don Pedro to find on this mainland a more enchanting site for



THE HILL OF "LA POPA."

The pine-clad Popa, crowned by the ancient monastery of Santa Cruz de la Popa, provides a commanding view of the city which lies at its foot.

his city; on the one hand were the waves of the sea, whose foam caressed the beach with their white kisses; on the other were the quiet waters of the bay, whose deep blue seemed to reflect the smiling sky; and in the background rose the pine-covered hill called La Popa de la Galera (The Galley Poop), covered with perennial verdure. It was a royal panorama, painted in the most delicate polychrome, and in the midst of it, thanks to the magic of the conquistador, Cartagena de Indias rose like a new Venus from the foam."

From its very beginning, the Queen of the Caribbean was the chief port of the Spanish conquistadors; thence, if history is to be believed, fleets of galleys laden with gold and precious stones worth many millions sailed for Spanish ports. Because of the steady increase in



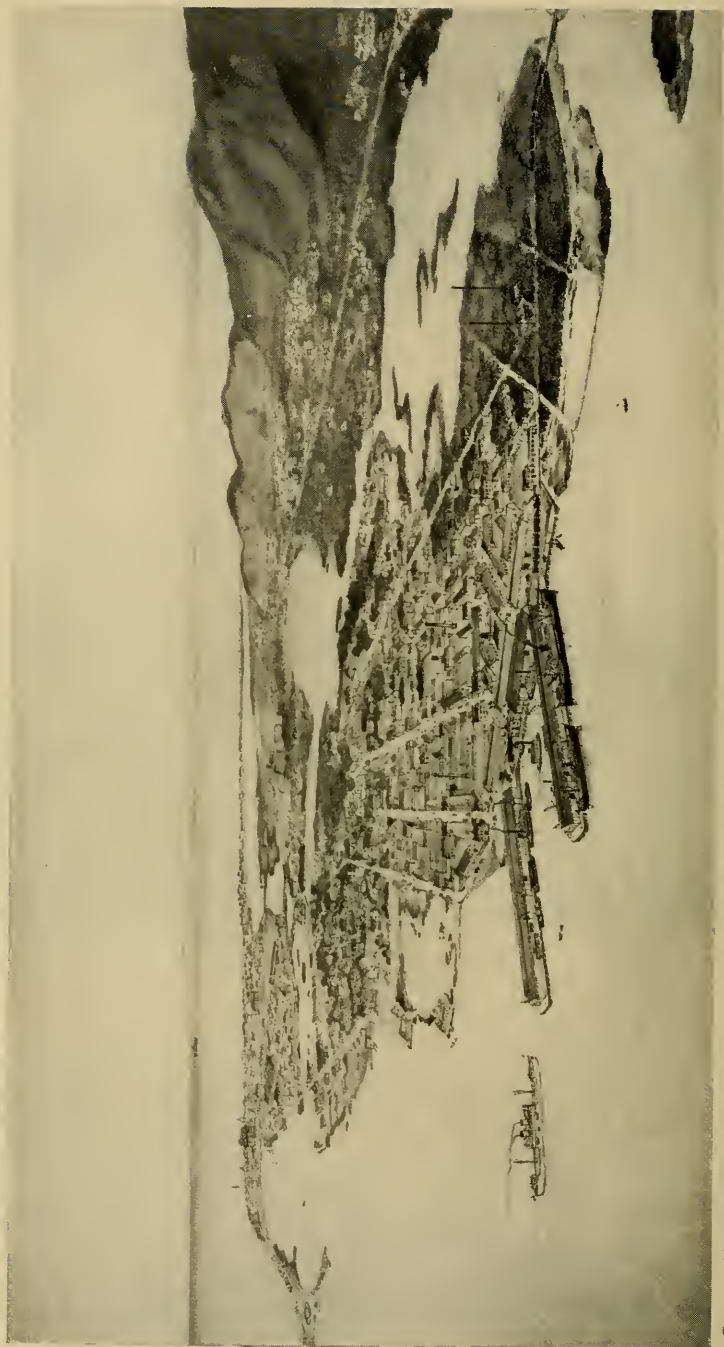


# OLD WALLS AND FORTIFICATIONS OF CARTAGENA.

Cartagena was considered of such great importance by its Spanish founders that the sum of 80,000,000 pesos, gold, was spent to protect it. Great walls, some sufficiently wide to permit 24 men to walk abreast, and strong fortresses surrounded the city. Upper: A section of the wall. At one time the arched section, extending to the left, was used as a prison. Center: Gateway to the city. Lower: One of the fortresses.







Courtesy of Frederick Sars Corporation.

#### THE MODERN PORT OF CARTAGENA.

The extensive improvements now under way at Cartagena will make it one of the most modern and well-equipped harbors in South America. The work, which is being carried out by a United States company, includes not only the construction of modern piers, but also the extension and dredging of the canal which connects Cartagena with the Magdalena River port of Calamar. The completed port works are scheduled to be delivered to the Colombian Government this month.

trade, and because, too, the new city was the coffer in which the conquistadors deposited the countless wealth drawn from these rich regions, the Spanish Crown decided to surround it with powerful forts for protection against invasion by the numerous pirates at that time ploughing the seas in search of booty. It was then that the great ramparts and castles were erected; they are still almost entirely intact, for because of their splendid construction they have suffered little at the rude hand of time. The traveler who visits the Heroic City today glimpses from afar those historic defenses, mute witnesses of the immortal deeds which gave fame to this Carthage of the New World. And from whatever side he enters the city, his attention is drawn to the high hill which owes its name to its strong resemblance to the poop of a ship. On its flank the gay and bustling city reposes, and from its summit a panorama surpassing expectation may be enjoyed.

"Neither word nor brush," said Alejandro Amador y Cortés, "can translate faithfully the fascinating beauty of the extraordinary ensemble formed by the great sea, the walled city, its outlying districts, its bay, its lakes and canals, its castles standing like sleepless sentinels, all miraculously distinct in the first light of dawn, or wrapped in the oppressive fire of the noonday sun, or sumptuously clad in the incomparable colors of a magnificent twilight."

Cartagena, because of its great wealth and resources, was the coveted prize of famous pirates and buccaneers almost from the first year of its foundation. In 1544 the French pirate Robert Baal sacked the city, taking advantage of an occasion when the people had relaxed their guard to celebrate a festival with due merriment. In 1585 Sir Francis Drake also surprised the population with 23 ships and 2,500 men. Events such as these and the importance of the port were, as has been said before, the reasons why the Spanish Government felt called on to spend large sums to fortify it. Some years later, in 1679, another French pirate, Ducasse, attacked the city; after a heavy bombardment, he succeeded in landing, and carried away great riches from churches and homes.

But unquestionably the most spectacular siege which the city has undergone, and the one which, through a strange coincidence, is indirectly related to the history of the United States, was the attack made on the stronghold in 1741 by a British fleet under the command of Admiral Vernon. The admiral brought a formidable armada of about 125 vessels, including men-of-war, ships of the line, frigates, and transports, and some 12,000 men, including 36 companies from the American colonies. To defend the city, Viceroy Sebastián Eslava and the military commander of the post, Blas de Lezo, could count on a force of 2,100 soldiers and 6 men-of-war, manned by 400 soldiers



THE BAY OF CARTAGENA AND ENTRANCE TO THE CITY.

The Bay of Cartagena is one of the most picturesque in the world. Its land-locked harbor is spacious and deep enough for the larger ocean steamers. The city, which long ago outgrew its enclosing walls, offers all the conveniences and attractions demanded by the most exacting visitor.



and 600 sailors. The besiegers, after their first attack had been repulsed with heavy losses, turned to the Fort of San Lázaro, the key to the stronghold, which they hoped soon to occupy. There was some lack of team work between General Wentworth, in charge of the land forces, and Admiral Vernon. The latter, either because he underestimated the strength of the fort, or in a burst of optimism, sent a report to London announcing the imminent surrender of the city. In view of his recent capture of Porto Bello, victory was considered so sure in England that medals were struck bearing the likeness of Admiral Vernon and the legend "The Spanish pride pulled down by Admiral Vernon," and festive celebrations were held in London in honor of the occasion. But as a matter of fact, after two weeks of daily fighting between the opposing forces, in the bay and ashore, the English were unable to gain any advantage; on the contrary, their losses were mounting daily, because of the mortality on the field of battle and the diseases to which the unaccustomed climate rendered them especially susceptible. In view of the heroic resistance of the Cartagenians, Admiral Vernon became discouraged, and at the end of two months of fruitless struggle, decided to raise anchor and retire to Jamaica. The hero of the defense, Lezo, was rewarded by the title of Marquis of Oviedo.

Among the North American troops was an officer from Virginia, a frail youth, but valiant and a good fighter. His companions held him in great esteem, and he, for his part, was devoted to his superior officers, especially to Admiral Vernon, who had shown him special attention. When the young man returned to his own country, he built a house on the banks of the Potomac River, near where the city of Washington now stands; he called his estate Mount Vernon, in memory of his former commander. The young officer's name was Lawrence Washington, and a few years later, at his death, the property went to his half brother, George. Few of the visitors to this national shrine are aware of the reason for its name.

The city of Cartagena was one of the first to declare its separation from Spain, which it did on November 11, 1811. Because of its heroic efforts during the War of Independence, especially during the famous siege it suffered at the hands of the "Pacifier" Morillo in the dark year 1815, the Liberator, Simón Bolívar, granted it the honorable and well-deserved title "Heroic City." In these deathless pages of its history the gallant city, the scene of remarkable deeds of valor, proudly faced the invader with an abnegation and a stoicism that added new luster to its fame.

Travelers and tourists are often surprised at the wealth of interesting and historic places in Cartagena, for its charm is all too little





THE CENTRAL

As one writer has stated: "Neither word nor brush can translate faithfully the fascinating beauty and its castles st

known. Yet few, if any, Spanish American cities possess such precious monuments of the past as does Cartagena. In its streets, on the walls of its imposing colonial mansions, in its flower-filled patios, in the general aspect of the older quarters, traces of the former night of Spain are everywhere apparent. Every stone evokes a memory, each gloomy vault and dungeon of its castles has a story of patriotism and of sacrifice.

Among such monuments are the Castillo de San José, built at the entrance of the outer bay, and united with the Castillo del Angel by a heavy chain to prevent the entrance of pirate or other enemy vessels; the Castillo de San Felipe de Barajas, the largest and most imposing of all, built at a cost of 11,000,000 pesos in 1764, on the site of San Lázaro, and now in the very heart of the city; the Castillo de San Sebastián del Pastelillo; the Castillo de San Fernando, with 57 dungeons, and mounted with great cannon; the city walls, dating from the time of Philip II, with their 27 bastions—although some of the bastions were destroyed as the city outgrew its original limits, the finest are still in good condition; and the Palace of the Inquisition, in the Plaza de Bolívar, constructed by a royal decree of Philip III with the authorization of Pope Paul V.

The lover of art will enjoy the churches and other religious buildings. The cathedral, constructed in 1612, is especially noteworthy;



OF CARTAGENA.

ordinary ensemble formed by the great sea, the walled city, its outlying districts, its bays, its lakes and canals, its sentinels."

its gold-encrusted altar, 50 feet high, is an extraordinary work of art. The monastery of Santa Cruz de la Popa, built in 1608 and overlooking the city from its commanding position on the summit of the hill, is the scene of an annual pilgrimage on February 2, which is one of the most typical of Cartagenian festivals. It is more than a century, according to a well-known writer, since the cloisters have echoed to the measured tread of monks. When the door is opened now to admit visitors, the drowsy cells seem to revive their memories of ancient days, and the thick walls murmur of a heroic past, evoked by the atmosphere of historic grandeur.

The city of Cartagena is one of the most beautiful in the entire Republic, and, like others dating from colonial times, it has preserved the patriarchal character of a by-gone day. Beside ancient stone mansions, whose beautiful wrought-iron grilles and wooden balconies add to their elegance, rise modern structures, giving the effect of a harmonious blending of two civilizations. All the attractions which the most exacting visitor could desire on his arrival in an unknown city are to be found in Cartagena—good hotels, beautiful parks and promenades, fine clubs, museums, libraries, and historic monuments are offered him by this brave and hospitable city.

As one of the sons of Cartagena has well said, "If Colombia could boast no other noble deeds, the glories of the Heroic City alone

would suffice to give her historic grandeur. The memories of this one city are an inexhaustible source of pride and glory, which maintain men's spirits in a state of perennial patriotic exaltation. Cartagena, the mirror and flower of nobility, an unsullied aristocratic city which saw romance blossom in its plateresque galleries, might be considered an ancient parchment where immortality paused to write, with the blood of its heroes, the Code of Honor for the Republic. It is the urn of tutelary virtues, the anvil on which were forged the souls of the heroes of yesterday, the self-denying mother for whose august temples epic history wrought the crown of martyrdom, a martyrdom which, in a common communion of grief, made us realize what the Fatherland meant."

The epic history of Cartagena glows indelibly in this legend of fire which the Liberator, Simón Bolívar, wrote with his sword, "If it is to Caracas that I owe my life, it is to Cartagena that I owe my glory."



A STREET IN CARTAGENA.

The city's streets are fairly straight and frequently of sufficient width for the requirements of present-day traffic. Picturesque buildings of colonial architecture with overhanging balconies and grilled windows blend harmoniously with structures of modern civilization.



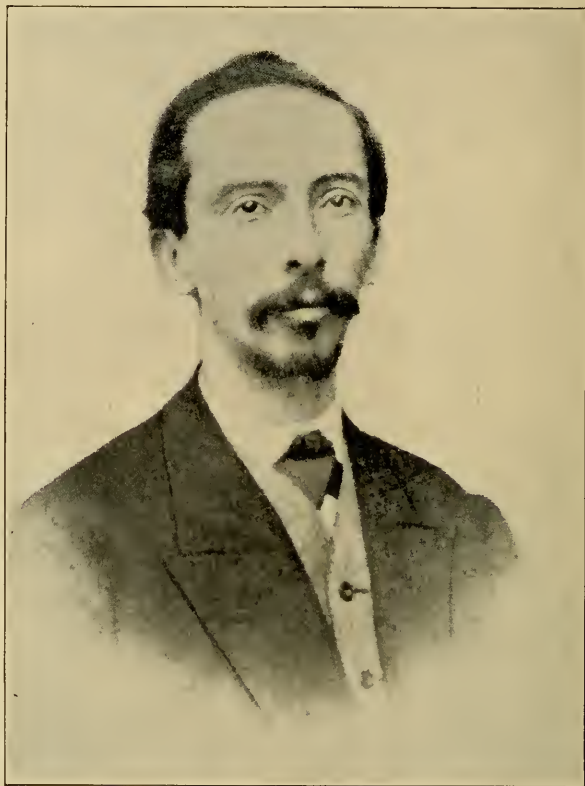
## RAFAEL POMBO

1833-1933

AS A tribute to the memory of the illustrious Colombian poet, Rafael Pombo, the first centenary of whose birth is November 7, 1933, the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union takes pleasure in quoting from a brilliant essay by the well known Colombian writer, Dr. Antonio Gómez Restrepo. It was written as a preface to the collected poems of Pombo which were published by the Colombian Government in 1917. The edition consists of four volumes—two of lyric poetry, one of translations, and one of fables, proverbs, and tales for children in verse. Doctor Gómez Restrepo wrote:

Pombo's early poetry reveals traces of the qualities which were to make him one of the greatest American poets: magnificent passionate outbursts, as in *La copa de vino*; descriptive passages in which he showed his skill in painting great and impressive panoramas, full of a sense of the infinite; cries of despair and of rebellion, prophetic of inner struggle, lightning foreboding the fierce tempest which was to burst in *La Hora de Tinieblas*. All these elements in his work were developed during his residence in the United States, where he was Secretary of the Colombian Legation under General Herrán. There, more extended literary horizons opened up before the poet; he found himself on a vast social stage; he became acquainted with the sea; he visited countries with a different climate, inhabited by people of another race; he met such great artists as Gottschalk, Teresa Carreño, and Adelina Patti; he was the friend of outstanding poets, such as Longfellow and Bryant, Tassara and Zenea; he was intimate with General Páez, and collaborated with Piñeyro in the *Nuevo Mundo*. Moreover, he widened his circle of study and reading, and acquired a great wealth of learning and experience; the inspired poet that he then was, was rounded out into a profound littérateur, a fact which gave to his muse the transcendental force and vigor of thought which we admire in his work of that period. As an intelligent amateur of music and the plastic arts, he levied tribute from them to embellish and adorn his work. In the romantic school were poets of little culture, instinctive artists; but there were also others, educated in severe literary discipline, like Rivas and Espronceda. Pombo belonged to the latter group, as his translations from Virgil and Horace prove, as do the critical studies which showed his varied erudition and his fine and sensitive judgment. Pombo was an untiring reader all his life, and the books in his library were full of his notes and observations.





RAFAEL POMBO.

This eminent Colombian poet, the centenary of whose birth is being observed this month, was born in Bogota on November 7, 1833.

His literary inspiration matured in the United States. He encompassed the whole scale of the Castilian lyre, glorying in a style at once facile, flexible, vigorous, and clear cut, in which each word expressed a thought and each epithet was a complete description. He treated everything, from the ode to the epigram, with incredible ease and dexterity. Under the artistic trappings of form may be glimpsed the sturdy muscles of thought, developed by experience of life and strengthened with the substance of knowledge. He tried to avoid unnecessary accessories; and when he succeeded in concentrating all his energy in a brief expressive phrase, his inspiration acquired great effectiveness and his verses displayed evidences of an inner exhilaration.

When an adequate history of romanticism is written, that is, one which includes in its study the outstanding poets and novelists belonging to the movement in all Spanish lands, Pombo will be given a prominent place for the originality, force, and spirit with which he cultivated certain styles, such as love lyrics, contemplative description, and philosophical meditation. His feeling towards love and nature was energetic and personal, a union of tropical ardor and the gentle exhalation of northern springtime. He endowed his verses with a penetrating melody, a deep and plaintive vibration, which made a hymn out of the ardent vivid outburst of human passion. He was attuned to the infinite, which enveloped his sentiments in majesty and mystery. He could see something more in things than their outer appearance revealed: a deep and symbolic significance, indicative of the inner harmony surrounding and uniting all created beings. Music, an art of which he was very fond all his life, had a powerful influence on his inspiration, not in the erratic and incoherent forms of decadent modernism, but converting his best poems into great symphonies, uniting in perfect consonance the rhythm and tone of the strophes with the sentiment expressed therein. . . .

This musical quality, which is so apparent in poets of other races—for example, Lamartine, Hugo, and Musset—is not often found in the Spanish classics; it was natural with Garcilaso, and, among the moderns, with Espronceda, Bécquer, and Juan Clemente Zenea. It is not a purely superficial music; it is one with the idea which surges from the depths of the soul, like the echo returned from “the deep caverns of feeling” of which San Juan de la Cruz spoke. Spanish love poetry has clearer and more precise resonances, a more metallic tone, less evocative power. The mysterious melody which is heard most often in mystic poetry is found in Pombo’s ode *A la música de Salinas*, in the *Noche oscura del alma*.

Pombo is, first of all, a poet of love. Perhaps he would have preferred to be a national bard, a civic poet, an inspired interpreter of

the sentiments of his country, a resounding voice intensifying the enthusiasm or the grief of his native land. He was a good citizen and a sincere patriot, as he demonstrated by word and by example in the crises of his life. In his collected poems are verses which prove, through the eloquence of sheer beauty, the intensity and purity of his civic pride, his love for Colombia, his great American spirit, his noble love for his race. But his poetry was too personal and too individual ever to echo the sentiments of a group, and as his country's bard, Pombo ranks below José Joaquín Ortiz.

The latter, the author of the *Bandera Colombiana*, on the other hand, was not noted for his love poetry; indeed, there are no examples of it in his entire works. As has already been said, the chord in Pombo's lyre which vibrated most readily was that which expressed the ecstasies and the torments of love, as may be seen by following his poetic career, step by step, from the chivalrous outburst of *La copa del vino*, to the significant sonnet of his old age, *Abisag*, which showed that underneath the ashes still there burned a volcano of passion and of desire. These poems, written in different periods and under the stress of very different emotions, do not have that organic unity apparent in collections like the *Canzoniere* of Petrarch, where the various episodes of a single love story are narrated. Pombo did not immortalize any one woman as Laura and Beatrice were immortalized, or the *Delina* of José Eusebio Caro. Many feminine figures pass through his verses, some the creations of the poet's fancy, others drawn from real life. This variety of real and imaginary individuals is equaled by the richness of the themes which Pombo treated with the vigor of one who put his whole soul into each accent of love. Read the four stanzas which make up the poem entitled *El seis de octubre*: seldom has a more tragic intensity of feeling and expression been achieved in the Spanish language. . . .

An awareness of nature as of love is evident in much of Pombo's poetry. Our poet loved nature intensely, almost religiously; and, accustomed as he was to admiring its stupendous manifestations from the foot of Puracé and of Tolima, he did not believe that art could compete with it in fecundity, or that his mission was to give it geometrical regularity, after the manner of the gardens laid out by Le Nôtre, under the pretext of embellishing and perfecting it. In the fragment entitled *El Valle*, one of his loveliest descriptive passages, he states his aesthetic credo in terms that would have surprised the artificial poets of the eighteenth century, who believed that they had purged nature of its imperfections.

Pombo did not consider description for description's sake an end worthy of art. That is evident in the great poem, *En el Niágara*, where he accomplished the feat of treating a theme which Heredia

had apparently appropriated for himself, without imitating in any way the celebrated ode by the Cuban poet. It was a praiseworthy effort, because this masterpiece enjoys such a reputation that it seems to have created the definitive mold for that kind of poem, since even Ortiz, in singing of the Tequendama, recalls the vein, the tone, and even some expressions of Heredia. Pombo painted with many masterly strokes which concentrate the attention on that "monster of grace, white, fascinating, enormous, august"; on that "museum of cataracts, factory of clouds, bottomless sea because of the weight of its waves"; on that "river of thunder, comet of waters"; on that "divine amphitheater" "where, between a mystery of tempest and fog, monsters of rock and Amazons of water struggle as if in eternal nightmare."

But the poet did not let himself be overwhelmed by the contemplation of such spectacles. What interested him most was man and his destiny, the memories of his dead beloved and his absent mother; and his most beautiful comparisons are impregnated with human emotions, which make them more vivid and powerful. . . .

Among Pombo's poems are two in which love is mingled in a more intimate manner with nature, as if passion had developed more deeply and intensely in the presence of the solemn panoramas of field and forest. One is a poem of youth warmed by the mild and life-bringing beams of the spring sun; the other is a poem of age, of autumnal sunset, splendid, but somber with deep melancholy. Although they were written years apart, one in the prime of life and the other in his declining years, these are twin compositions, with equal freshness, the same musical charm, the same imaginative magic; they clearly demonstrate that the fountain of the poet's emotions was forever fresh, and that whenever he wished he could draw therefrom the living waters of true inspiration. One is called *Preludio de primavera*, the other *Decíamos ayer*. The former sings the indefinable emotion, both of body and of soul, which mankind feels on receiving the first greeting of springtime—that expansion of vital energy, that inner rejoicing, formless and nameless, which brightens the eyes and brings a smile to the lips, that pleasure in living, in submerging one's self in the revivifying springs of mother nature. The second poem has the sadness of looking backward, of the retrospective gaze with which we contemplate distant panoramas before the last rays of the sun disappear and darkness reigns. The stanzas of the *Preludio* are light and pellucid, fresh as a zephyr, diaphanous as air, gentle as the music of brooks freed from their icy chains.

The first verses of *Decíamos ayer* were inspired by a poem by Ella Wheeler Wilcox, but in the rest of the poem Pombo surrendered to



the current of his recollections; and his inspiration, which had seemed irremediably jaded, renewed itself miraculously, producing a long lyric poem which should be numbered among the rarest jewels of his composition. The placid sweetness of the *Preludio* is followed by the solemn gravity of the sunset; the crystal music of those strophes, by the deep vibration of the evening Angelus; each stanza is a perfect picture, traced with the finest of brushes, which catches the most elusive detail; and the suggestive power of the poem raises every object to an ideal plane, purifying and beautifying it. . . .

Pombo did not limit his songs to love alone; he knew how to evoke adorable feminine figures who are equally immortal with the poet—some ideal maidens, sisters of Undine, others beings of passion, molded of fire. There *Luisa A.* . . ., *La extranjera*, *Angelina*, *Elvira Tracy*, *La Eva de los aires*, raise their dreamy heads; there Manuelita, the beauty of Popayán, whom Pombo chivalrously defended in *La copa de vino*, shows her proud profile. . . .

Prominent among these figures is *Edda*, the imaginary poet of Bogotá, the heroine of a love poem which won for her the epithet of "The Christian Sappho", and made her famous throughout Spanish America. For some time it was not known that Pombo was the real author of the passionate stanzas entitled *Mi amor*, and after the discovery was made many feminine hearts felt betrayed on learning that the one who had interpreted their intimate feelings so ably was a man singularly lacking in physical charms. The fame which that poem achieved inspired Pombo to write a whole poem with *Edda* for its heroine, and he composed various fragments at different times, always in the form of an autobiographical confession. Where did Pombo get the name *Edda* and the idea of personifying thereby the alluring passion which defies the world and remains strong until death? Pombo wrote in a note to the second fragment that his heroine had no connection with the Islandic legends of the same name, and such is indeed the case. But perhaps a secret sympathy, due to his Celtic ancestry,<sup>1</sup> made him recall the celebrated Velleda, the druid priestess whose ill-starred love story is the most beautiful episode of Chateaubriand's *Les Martyrs*. Velleda, the victim of a fateful and unconquerable love for a man who accepts her sacrifice without returning her passion, is one of those fantastic visions which the Frenchman, the inconstant and egoistic idol of so many noble women who sacrificed themselves for him as did the Celtic priestess for Eudoro, took pleasure in evoking. It is evident that Pombo was not imitating Chateaubriand; the position of the two women is entirely distinct; and *Edda* speaks, not like a semisavage pagan, but

<sup>1</sup> Pombo, the son of Don Lino de Pombo y O'Donell and Doña Ana Rebolledo, was closely related to the distinguished Irish family which had settled in Spain, and whose most noted member was Gen. Leopoldo O'Donell, Duque de Tetuán.—EDITOR.

like the daughter of modern civilization. That the words Pombo put in her mouth are natural to the feminine heart, is proved by the fact that his poem was especially praised by women; and it was answered with enthusiastic verses, not only by the great Argentine poet Guido Spano, but by various women poets who wished to show their sympathy for his imaginary companion. . . .

*Edda* shares the laurels of popularity with a work of a very different character, celebrated, not so much on account of its poetic merits, which are great, as because it was a song of despair and rebellion: *La Hora de Tinieblas*. . . .

In works of this kind, in which the moral and the literary values are necessarily at odds, their beauty does not depend on the inherent idea, for if that were crudely or coldly expressed, no one would be at all moved; it lies rather in the vigor of emotion, in the depth of the grief weighing on the poet, so that we are moved to share his feelings, although we may not approve his rebellious attitude. As Menéndez y Pelayo sagely observed, "Force is an aesthetic element, even if we leave its application out of the question." Hence Milton's *Satan* is worth more artistically than his good angels, who are models of pacific perfection. What interests us most in *La hora de tinieblas* is the tormented soul, born for angelic happiness, but expending its passion in tumultuous gusts. This poem gives the impression of a sea agitated on some tropical night by an earthquake which raises convulsive waves, churns them against the beach, and creates, here and there, submarine volcanoes, crowned with plumes of fire. . . .

To free the imagination from the accumulated shadows of this poem, it is pleasant to feel the cooling breeze of *El torbellino a misa*, the refreshing exhalations of *El Bambuco*, the rural atmosphere of *La casa del cura*. These poems show us a new and delightful phase of Pombo's genius, for he could with equal facility rise to lyric grandeur or descend to the tone of every-day poetry. This aristocrat of his art, who sang of noble ideals, realized the great value of popular poetry and appreciated its ingenuousness and pungency. But he did not confuse the popular with the vulgar, knowing that the forceful and simple manifestation of primitive feelings is one thing, and the coarse expression of base passions or low desires, quite another; that the flower of poetry, opening spontaneously in the heart of genuine people, under the warmth of honest affection, is something quite different from the rank vegetation, with its poisonous blooms, cultivated in the heat of unhealthy social ferments; and that there is a great difference between the graphic and expressive language which contains many artistic elements, although reminiscent of fields and mountains, and the trivial and unintelligible idiom which seems to have come from the slums of great cities. Pombo felt folk music deeply; and

he, the devotee of Rossini and Gounod, and the author of opera librettos after the Italian manner, let his muse soar on the light wings of the national music, the *bambuco*. The *Torbellino a misa* is a poem of dawn, with its concert of birds, its merry fires, its healthy rural tang, its gay refrain which rings out an invitation to enjoy life.

*El Bambuco* is painted on a much larger canvas, with the marvellous Valley of the Cauca as its background. In the undulating rhythm of his verses, the poet combined a great variety of emotions, ranging from the enthusiasm inspired by folk dancers to the historic traditions of his country, all fused in the heat of a burning inspiration which gave to a popular entertainment the grandeur of an epic. Because of the opulence of its images and the warmth of its style, it is a tropical poem, but wrought with exquisite art, restraining the enthusiastic impulses within the given limits of a perfect form. The scene develops under a serene sky, at night, described by the poet with Andalusian pride: "During a night like one of those of my native land, which well might be considered day where nights like those are unknown." . . .

Pombo rendered a great service to children who speak the Spanish language, which is so poor in adequate poetry capable of entertaining and educating their untouched imaginations; he wrote the *Cuentos morales* and the *Cuentos pintados* which, illustrated and published in the United States, are still sold in every corner of Spanish America and are as familiar to the children as Cinderella and Tom Thumb. The idea of those tales was not original with Pombo; according to his own statement, he took them from foreign sources, probably from the English. But his adaptation was so able, that he appropriated the stories by right of conquest and gave them new life. The famous Argentine writer Juan María Gutiérrez wrote to Señor Caro,<sup>2</sup> referring to the *Cuentos*, "A task apparently humble, but of indisputable value and usefulness. Friends of education ought to consider Señor Pombo one of the benefactors of South American childhood. That is no small achievement, to my mind. I have been spending these winter nights regularly by my fire, giving some time to teaching an intelligent eight-year-old mulatto and making him read the stories of Simple Simon, the kittens who lost their mittens, and the fox who stole the chickens; and it has given me great pleasure to see his eyes flash with joy and to watch him hurry on with the reading because he was attracted by the verses, whose rhythm is well adapted to his ear and his mentality." Pombo showed such genius in this field that he is still undisputed master there. *Rin Rin Renacuajo*, *Michín*, and *Doña Pánfago* have definite individuality; they are as firmly fixed in the imaginary Olympus of children as those mythical figures with

<sup>2</sup> Miguel Antonio Caro (1843-1909), well known as a writer and statesman, President of Colombia, 1894-98.—EDITOR.



which the cheerful fantasy of the ancients peopled the world, are in the minds of men.

It is generally conceded that the years Pombo spent in the United States were the most brilliant of his whole career, for while there he added to his wealth of original composition his finest poetic translations. It was during that period that he interpreted in masterly fashion the three immortal elegies: *Le Lac* (Lamartine), *La tristesse d'Olimpio* (Hugo), and *Souvenir* (Musset); that he introduced to our language many poems by Longfellow and Bryant, poets with whom he had much in common; that he brought to our knowledge foreign literary jewels—as, for example, *The Bridge of Sighs*—with which he enriched Castilian poetry as did Bello with his *Moisés* and *La oración por todos*, both translations from Victor Hugo. The great Cuban critic, Enrique Piñeyro, called Pombo “the king of translators”, well-deserved praise for the skill with which he found the forceful and unique phrase for casting in a new and imperishable mold an idea conceived in a different tongue.

The fullness of his powers coincided with the singer's maturity, the epoch which the muses especially love. His third period may be said to begin with Pombo's return to his own country, and lasted until his death. It is marked by the growth of a certain rational and discursive tendency, which had already been suggested in some of his best poems—*Angelina*, *En el Niágara*—but which was then subordinated to imagination and emotion; later, when the luster of these qualities was somewhat dim, the propensity to turn poetry into “reason expressed in song”, according to the later formula of Lamartine, began to predominate. Pombo, versed in a knowledge of English literature, borrowed its fondness for reasoning in verse, as the great British poets, Byron and Shelley, Wordsworth and Tennyson, had done. The English language, forceful, concise, adapted to philosophical speculation by generations of thinking artists, is an adequate form for purely intellectual poetry. In Spanish, the writer who wishes to endow his verse with English conciseness and rhythms, runs the risk of being harsh and difficult to understand, of hiding the substance under a dry verbal crust. If Wordsworth, in *The Excursion*, could not escape prosiness, it is not to be wondered at that Pombo fell into the same error. Of course, in the case of a poetic genius as powerful as his, signs of decadence would become evident very slowly; and in his treatment of all kinds of subjects Pombo continued during many years to manifest his multiform genius and his incredible facility for versifying. Furthermore, each time that he returned to the old yet ever new themes of love, nature, or art, the tonic waters of his inspiration brimmed over, clear and fresh, from the fountainhead, as is shown by *Decíamos ayer*, *Patria y poesía*, *La música*, ¡*Siempre!*,



*Elegía, A Felipe S. Gutiérrez, or Magia.* His compositions written in hendecasyllabic quatrains are particularly happy. On the other hand, he was too fond of the sonnet, the chosen medium of his old age; and among the hundreds of this period, beside some that are really beautiful, there are others either too subtle, or lacking in grace, music, and atmosphere. Apparently the poet, in spite of his defense of the sonnet, considering it the form most appropriate for the bustling modern world, felt cramped in so narrow a mold, and his thoughts struggled to break the bonds imposed by its meter. There are inspired poets who need broader meters for the full development of their inspiration: Byron, Lamartine, and Hugo wrote hardly any sonnets. Pombo, who carried in his inner ear the rhythm of English verse and wrote in that tongue sonnets which won him applause from high authorities, tried when writing Spanish to accommodate all the material which could have been contained in the Saxon idiom; and his very conciseness therefore made him obscure. . . .

Pombo wrote religious sonnets, which he published in a pamphlet (the only time he ever made a collection in his life), and sonnets written to prove, with a barrage of arguments and comparisons, the excellence of the Hanneman system. He called the first ones through some odd caprice, *Revólver místico*, and printed them with some by an unknown epigrammatic poet of Portuguese origin named José Soares de Silva; the poems were so similar in subtlety of phrase that many readers took that name to be a pseudonym of Pombo's, and attributed the entire volume to him. That was a mistake, for the Luso-Hispanic poet really did exist, although his name does not figure in literary history; I possess a copy of this extremely rare and curious book, a mixture of prose and poetry, all in the fashion of the period. . . .

But his truly incomparable sonnet is *De noche*; this was not a poem of his later days, for it was written in 1890, but it is indeed his philosophical and poetic testament, the masterpiece of his lyric poems and a true answer to *La Hora de Tinieblas*. These fourteen lines contain all the melancholy of old age, when health, illusions, in a word, life, are fleeing with cruel and painful indifference, and even the muses say farewell. In the once flourishing garden silence begins to reign, an omen of death; but the soul, eager for immortality, hears, instead of the fading murmurs of the world, angelic voices calling; and as the invading shadows lengthen, the shining walls of heaven are seen to open. A perusal of this sonnet is better than any commentary on it; there are few of its kind to equal it in the Spanish language.

## OUR MADONNA AT HOME <sup>1</sup>

TO MY MOTHER

Couldst thou portray that face whose holy spell  
Still sheds its peace o'er all the loved at home?  
'Tis mine so long in other lands to roam  
That her smile only I remember well.

Hers at whose shrine, when sickness on me fell  
In childhood, suppliant thou didst kneel, my mother,  
And I saw both smile, weep, embrace each other,  
And which the sweeter was I could not tell.

When memory now in manhood would recall  
Her features who with thee doth share my heart,  
Her half-forgotten face seems like to thine;

And both are still to me the source of all  
That's best in me of poesy and art,  
Nor either mother could my soul resign.

New York, December 1869.

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<sup>1</sup> This sonnet and another dedicated to his father were shown by Pombo to William Cullen Bryant, then editor of the New York Evening Post, with the request that Bryant read them and tell the author frankly whether they were English and poetry. To Pombo's surprise, this one was published in the Evening Post the next day (March 11, 1871) and he was warmly congratulated by the editor for his achievement.—EDITOR.



CAPTAIN COLÓN ELOY ALFARO.  
ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF ECUADOR  
IN THE UNITED STATES.

## CAPTAIN COLÓN ELOY ALFARO MINISTER OF ECUADOR IN THE UNITED STATES

ON September 12, 1933, His Excellency Captain Colón Eloy Alfaro presented to President Roosevelt his letters of credence as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Ecuador to the United States.

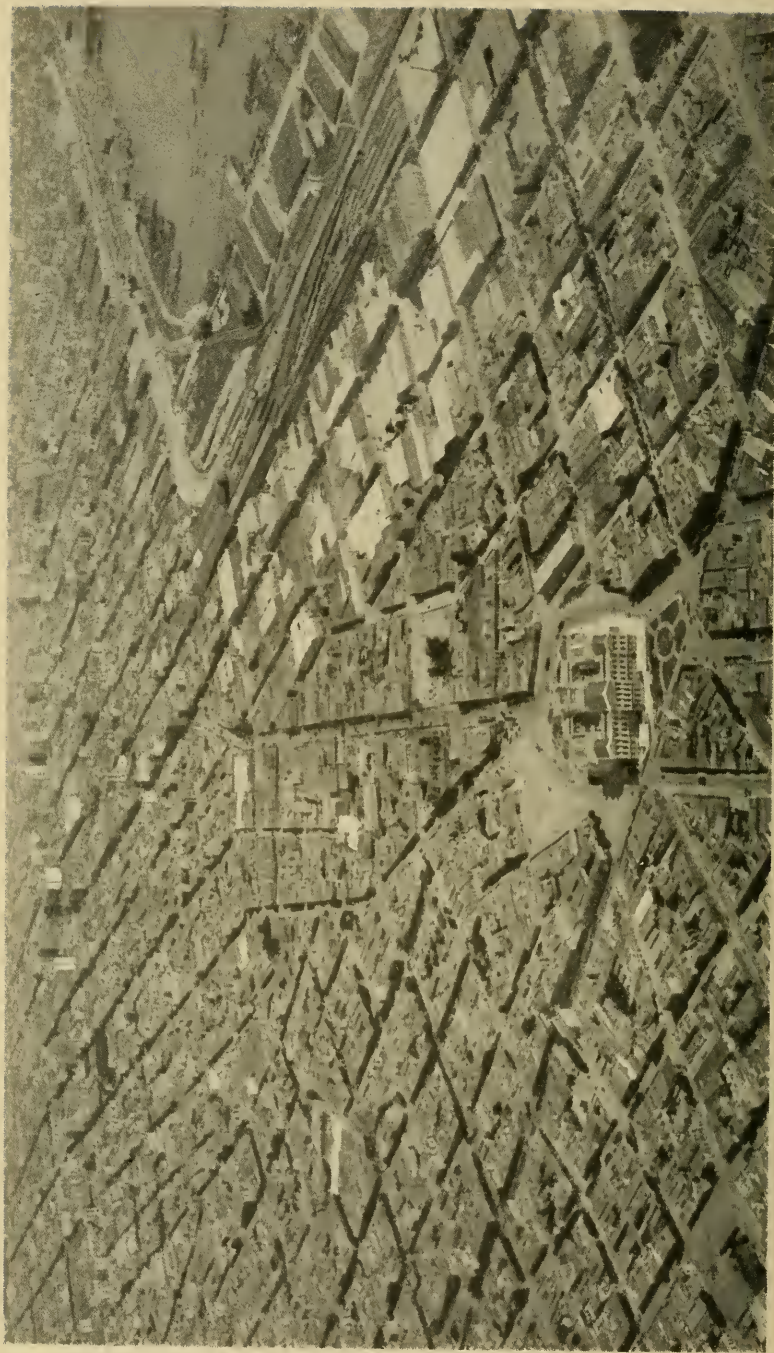
The new diplomatic representative of Ecuador was educated in Guayaquil, at the Colegio Nacional Vicente Rocafuerte, and in Quito, at the Military Academy, where he served as aide to the staff. Captain Alfaro, following in the footsteps of his father, planned a military career, and entered the "Yaguachi" cavalry regiment. He continued his studies abroad in the United States, at West Point, and in Germany, where he was a member of the 15th Hussars.

Captain Alfaro began his diplomatic career as Military Attaché to the Ecuadorean Legation in London, serving next in the same capacity in Belgium. His more important posts, however, have been on this continent; he was successively Consul General, Chargé d'Affaires, and Resident Minister in Panama, and has since been Minister to Mexico, Cuba, Panama, Nicaragua, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Costa Rica, and Colombia. At the time of his appointment as Minister to the United States, he was dean of the diplomatic corps in Panama.

In the course of his diplomatic career, he has been Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the celebration of the Centenary of the Bolivarian Congress in Panama, in 1926, as well as delegate from his country to the commemorative congress which was held at the same time; Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the inauguration of the President of Cuba in 1929 and to Managua subsequent to the earthquake which nearly destroyed that capital; and Ambassador Extraordinary to the inauguration of the President of Panama in 1924 and in 1928. He was the delegate of the Ecuadorean Army at the coronation of King George V of England, and of his Government at the dedication of the monument to Vasco Núñez de Balboa in Panama, the Sixth International Conference of American States in Habana, and the dedication of the Eloy Alfaro monument and plaza in Habana.

The various decorations which Captain Alfaro has received include the Star of Abdón Calderón, first class, and the insignia of Grand Officer of the Order of Merit, of Ecuador; the insignia of Grand Officer of the Order of Carlos Manuel de Céspedes, the Cross of Honor and Merit, and the Cross of Military Merit, white ribbon, of Cuba; the Military Medal, of England; and Guard of the Liberator, of Colombia.





MONTEVIDEO FROM THE AIR.

In the center foreground of this partial view of the city appears the new Capitol, where the Seventh International Conference of American States will hold its meetings, the inaugural session taking place December 3, 1933.

## SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

THE readers of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union will be interested to know that the Government of Uruguay has designated Sunday, December 3, 1933, as the date on which the opening session of the Seventh International Conference of American States will be held in Montevideo.

The Government of Uruguay, through the Minister of Foreign Affairs, has extended the following invitation to the governments of the other American republics:

MONTEVIDEO, *August 2, 1933.*

MY DEAR MR. MINISTER:

By decision of the Sixth International Conference, met in Habana, the next meeting of the American nations is to take place in the city of Montevideo.

December 3 having been set by the Pan American Union, in accord with the Government of Uruguay, as the date for the opening session of the Seventh Conference, my Government has the great honor of sending an invitation to that of Your Excellency, with the hope that no American country will fail to be present at the forthcoming assembly of American nations.

The program of the Seventh International Conference of American States was sent at the proper time to Your Excellency by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, together with the regulations of the conference.

It would be superfluous to emphasize on this occasion the great importance of the subjects to be studied, especially since the unusual seriousness of the times gives to the forthcoming assembly of American nations an unparalleled importance.

In this respect it may be said that the Montevideo conference will not be merely a formal international gathering.

The deep and painful concern caused by the economic, financial, political, and social difficulties which beset the States of the New World as well as other nations, will create an atmosphere of portentous calm and anxious hope about the Conference.

It will be imperative that a strong sense of reality should pervade what up to now has been an ideal whose gradual transformation into fact has been going on over a period of many years.

The question of economic interdependence ought to be examined with a sincere and deep sense of the fraternally reciprocal interest of all the nations of this Continent.

America can, and should, discover through its creative genius the new path leading to peace, to domestic stability, and to employment, which is productive only when fairly and normally remunerated.

It is essential that there be trust between men and between nations; that our eyes be not shut to hard and unpleasant realities; in brief, that Pan Americanism and brotherhood be what they ought to be, an affirmation of united efforts and of unceasing desire for collective improvement.

With such hopes the Government of Uruguay trusts that the Government of Your Excellency will be pleased to attend the forthcoming Assembly of the Nations of America to be held in Montevideo, where the delegates of ——— will be received by their Uruguayan confreres with affectionate rejoicing and with the cordial reception meet for a reunion of brothers.

I therefore repeat to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

# MEDICAL TRAINING IN MEXICO

## SOME HIGHLIGHTS IN ITS HISTORY

By ADAM CARTER  
*Pan American Union Staff*

ON October 23, 1933 the School of Medicine of the National University of Mexico entered the second century of a most active and useful life, begun by giving the nation a new era in medical training and continued by making the school, in its particular field, one of the outstanding educational institutions in Latin America and the center of Mexican medical science, which today has a personality of its own and is recognized as being of the highest order.

The history of medicine in Mexico is as rich and colorful as the general history of the country, and any notes, however cursory, on the National School of Medicine and its achievements during the last century would be incomplete unless coupled to events of a medical and a general historical character culled in part from the still deeper past: from Colonial times and from the days in which Aztec civilization flourished.

Mexico's medical record is long and enviable. The Aztecs had at their command more than three thousand medicinal plants; in fact, they knew more about certain aspects of medicine than did the Spaniards who conquered them. Mexico City gave us the first medical book published in America; the first course in medicine in an American university; the first Academy of Medicine in Latin America; and the first American periodical of a medical character.

In the time of the Aztecs, medicine was an hereditary profession, taught by physicians to their sons after these had received, from the priests and tutors, an elementary education in the schools and seminaries attached to the temples. Medical instruction included the study of pathology, therapeutics, botany, and pharmacy, followed by clinical training. In order to practice, it was necessary to pass an examination and to obtain a license from the authorities.

Medicine must have reached a high degree of development among the Aztecs. One of the early Spanish historians tells us that "they had great knowledge of vegetable products, knew how to bleed and how to rub, reduced dislocations and fractures, scarified and cured sores and gout, and cut the carnosities in cases of ophthalmia." Medicinal herbs were sold in the streets of Tenochtitlán, the Aztec metropolis, and extensively cultivated in the royal botanical gardens. The city had hospitals for the aged and the poor, as well as homes



for the civil and military servants of the crown who had become disabled and required assistance.

It was not long after the Spaniards conquered the Aztecs, destroyed their social and political institutions, and initiated a new order, that educational institutions of diverse kinds began to appear. In 1525, four years after the great Tenochtitlán was destroyed and Mexico City commenced to rise in its place, the Town Council agreed to pay Francisco Soto, a barber-surgeon, a salary for his services as instructor in his profession.

According to some historians, medical instruction in an institution was first given in the College of Santa Cruz de Tlaltelolco, an educa-



THE SCHOOL OF MEDICINE, NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MEXICO.

This building, which began as a Dominican convent and was later occupied by the Inquisition, had a varied existence up to its acquisition by the medical school in 1854.

tional establishment which ranked high in those days, specially during the time of the illustrious viceroy don Antonio de Mendoza. Formal professional studies began in 1580 with the establishment of a course in medicine at the Royal and Pontifical University which had been founded in Mexico City in 1553. Later on three other courses were added, the four constituting the professional instruction given until the end of what is known as the metaphysical period of medical science. Other centers of medical training during this period were the University of Guadalajara and the Royal School of Surgery in Mexico City, both of which were founded after the University in Mexico City had begun its courses in medicine.



In 1570, the first medical book to be published in the New World, the *Opera Medicinalia* of Francisco Bravo, appeared in México City, and was followed in 1578 by the *Summa y Recopilacion de Chirugia*, written by Alfonso López de Hinojoso. As the authors of these two books were Spaniards, the publication in 1579 of the *Tratado Breve de Medicina* written by Friar Agustín Farfán, a Mexican and one of the first medical graduates from the university, may be considered an even greater honor for Mexico.

These books constitute an implied tribute to the Indians, because it was, in a large measure, the knowledge acquired from them that gave the authors the information there published.

The first medical academy in Latin America was established in Mexico City in 1732, and the first medical periodical in the New World, the *Mercurio Volante*, founded there in 1772. It is true that this institution and this publication were short-lived, but the fact that they found obstacles which proved, in the end, insurmountable, serves only to emphasize the progressive spirit of the men who established them. Prior to the appearance of the *Mercurio Volante*, medical writings had appeared in the *Gaceta de México* (1722-42). A list has been compiled which mentions 315 medical works published in Mexico City from 1570 to 1833.

The road of medical progress was not an easy one during those centuries. Medicine and surgery were two separate professions, and physicians and surgeons, especially the latter, did not enjoy the social standing to which they were certainly entitled.

Medicine itself was subdivided into several professions, and the training given those who embraced any one of these was limited. Besides, medical and theological knowledge were so interwoven that it was hard to say where one ended and the other began. Anatomy was more advanced under the Aztecs than in Colonial days, and while it is true that the proficiency of the former was acquired because human sacrifices were made to the gods, the fact remains that this superior knowledge existed. The Christian world in those days did not approve of the dissection of the human corpse. Charles V inquired of the doctors in the university if it was a mortal sin to perform such an operation, and Philip II forbade all dissections.

An incident that occurred in 1692 may serve to illustrate the great importance attached in those days to the opinions expressed in regard to corporeal matters by those who ministered to the needs of the soul. The viceroy had forbidden the use of *pulque* (a beverage made from the agave plant) by the Indians, and in order to ascertain if this measure was just and advisable, he consulted not only the Royal Board of Physicians but also the University and the Jesuit Fathers. The decision of the Royal Board was brief, and of a scientific, if somewhat arbitrary, character. The Jesuits expressed their opinion

in a strictly theological document. And the university submitted a lengthy report in which appeared the names of Juno, Herodotus, Saint Thomas, Saint Augustine, Saint John Chrysostom, and many others equally impressive.

A knowledge of the disadvantages under which medicine labored in those days makes for a better appreciation of some events that took place during the eighteenth century, such as the request made of

TITLE PAGE OF  
"SUMMA Y RE-  
COPILACIÓN DE  
CIRUGIA."

This title page is reproduced from the second edition issued in 1595. The first edition was printed by Antonio Ricardo in 1578.

**SVMMA  
Y RE COPILACION  
DE CIRVGIA, CON VN ARTE PARA  
SANGRAR, Y EXAMEN DE BARBE  
ROS, COMPVESTO POR MAESTRE  
Alonso Lopez de Hinojoso.**

**VA AÑADIDO EN ESTA SEGVNDA IMPRESION  
el origen y nascimiento de las reumas, y las enfermedades que  
dellas proceden, con otras coñas muy provechosas  
para acudir al remedio delas,  
y de otras muchas en-  
fermedades.**



**EN MEXICO  
En casa de Pedro Balli. Año do  
M D X C V.**

the king in 1735, upon the initiative of a Medical Academy then established in Mexico City and in the name of all Mexican physicians, that an independent medical school be established in the country—a praiseworthy, if fruitless, suggestion; the beginning of dissections at the School of Surgery; the order issued by Charles III in 1787 that medicine be accorded the same regard and respect as the other learned professions because “it has the noble status of a science”; the recognition by the authorities of the highly useful character of medical

services in an order issued in 1793 whereby physicians were requested to answer with promptitude all calls for their assistance; and the intense persecution of charlatans in the latter part of the century. It may be of interest to note that many of these illegal practitioners were turned over to the Tribunal of the Inquisition, then housed in a building which is now the seat of the School of Medicine.

In spite of existing difficulties, really valuable work was performed by the men of this period; they inaugurated the era which produced the Medical School.

The line of cleavage between what may be termed the official and the liberal viewpoints in educational matters became even more accentuated in the beginning of the nineteenth century. At that time it was not permissible to teach outside the university; this fact led Dr. José Luis Montaña, an eminent physician, to establish, in secret, medical courses in which theoretical knowledge was acquired, to be completed later on by clinical experience in the various hospitals.

At the close of the Wars of Independence (1810-21) the new era in medicine began to flourish. Many text books and instruments started to arrive from Europe, and dissections became frequent. In 1823 the Government ordered that surgeons be accorded the same privileges as physicians; in 1830 the union of medical and surgical studies was established; and 1831 saw the abolition of the Board of Physicians, which for more than two centuries had directed the study and the practice of medicine, and which had reached a state of decadence. The board was replaced by a Medical Faculty in charge of examinations. These events culminated in the creation of an Establishment of Medical Sciences, which later on became the National Medical School. The new institution was created by a decree of October 23, 1833, and opened its doors on the 28th of the following month.

At that time a doctor of medicine, don Valentín Gómez Farías, was Acting President of Mexico. This great statesman, called today, in all justice, the Father of the Liberal Revolution, took a personal interest in the advancement of medical training, and it was due to his efforts that the new school was established. The achievements of Gómez Farías, one of the men of whom Mexico is justly proud, are enhanced by the fact that he worked under the most adverse conditions, in times of pestilence and war. In 1833 an epidemic of cholera morbus struck Mexico City, and the people saw their President, who did not forget that he was a physician, employ the hours that his official duties left him free in going from house to house, in the poorer section of the city, giving medical assistance to the destitute.

The building in which the School of Medicine is now established was at first a Dominican convent, and later occupied by the Inquisition for more than two centuries. The cloister-like corridors of this

imposing old place and the broken flagstones of its enclosed courtyards, now trod by men of science deeply concerned with the ills to which the human flesh is heir and by students possibly awed at the prospect of examinations, were formerly paced by grim-faced priests bent on saving the human soul no matter what the price the human body had to pay. After the Inquisition was abolished, the building was used as a state prison; a gambling place; an army barracks; the seat of Congress; the seat of the Government of the State of Mexico; the War Office; and a secondary school. In 1854 it was acquired by the Medical School, which has occupied it ever since.

The School of Medicine has not always had easy sailing, and there is certainly a great deal of merit in its having reached the first centenary of an active and useful life. It opened with 84 students. Now it has more than twenty times that many. The salaries first paid the faculty were quite satisfactory, considering the times and the economic situation of the country. Each professor received 1,200 pesos a year.

Politics have on several occasions crossed the path of the school. In 1835, as a result of a change in government, the faculty was compelled to vacate the building it was using, but this only served to give the professors a chance to show their mettle. They continued to give instruction in their homes and at various hospitals placed at their disposal by other physicians. Incidents of a similar nature have occurred at various times, but have always been overcome by the energy and the disinterestedness of those in charge of the school.

During the war of 1847 a complete company, officers and men, was formed by the faculty and students and made part of the "Hidalgo" regiment. In 1863 a protest was made by the school against the French intervention begun the previous year, and allegiance sworn to the national government. This was done in a moment of real danger, because the invaders were then not far from the city. In 1862 the school had contributed, with the sums intended for its prizes, to the maintenance of military hospitals, and all its professors and students had offered their professional services to the government.

While the French intervention undoubtedly did great damage to Mexico, it nevertheless served to advance Mexican medicine. Contact with the invaders made their language better known and introduced the Mexican physicians to all the French medical works and to French translations of German and English books. This new knowledge was widespread when the Republican authorities came back to the national capital in 1867, as it had become customary and almost essential for medical students to know French, and as many of them went to Paris for post-graduate work.

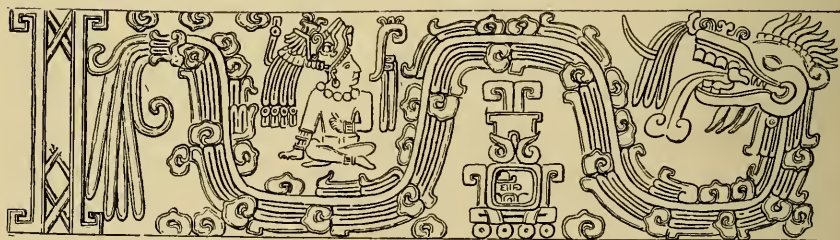
The School of Medicine, now a part of the National University, has a brilliant record of achievement. It constitutes, as has been said, the



center of Mexican medical training, which need not fear comparison with schools of other nations. The scientific work of many of its graduates does honor to the country and to the institution, and on the other hand, these men may well be proud of having such an alma mater.

The manner in which the school has been commemorating its centenary shows clearly that the men now connected with it are as energetic and progressive as their predecessors. The program for the observance of the centenary has been carried on throughout the year and includes extensive improvements and repairs to the building in which the school is housed; several post-graduate courses; a series of medical meetings conducted and attended by distinguished Mexican and foreign physicians; and the publication of a Centennial Book containing the history of the school, of 10 text books written by members of the faculty, and of the minutes of the medical meetings. The program also included a special celebration on the date of the centenary, October 23, and the removal of the ashes of Dr. Gómez Farías to the Rotunda of Illustrious Men—the Mexican Pantheon.

May the brilliant past of the National School of Medicine be a source of inspiration in its promising future.



# THE SILK INDUSTRY IN BRAZIL<sup>1</sup>

By C. R. CAMERON

*American Consul General, São Paulo, Brazil*

THE silkworm and the mulberry tree, whose leaf constitutes the worm's only food, were apparently introduced into Brazil from Europe early in the nineteenth century. The silkworm is known locally as *sirgo*, or more commonly as *bicho de seda*, the mulberry tree being called *moreira*. Sericulture was undertaken in earnest in the Province of Rio de Janeiro in 1846, during the reign of Dom Pedro II, but proved a financial failure. Similar attempts were made in the State of São Paulo, at Sorocaba and Piracicaba in 1850, and again at Campinas in 1876, but these early attempts all failed, through the lack both of a technical organization and also, apparently, of a market for cocoons. Italian immigrants, nevertheless, continued to introduce and breed silkworms in a crude fashion. During the past ten years, however, governmental aid—Federal, State, and municipal—has stimulated private enterprise and given an impetus to the production of cocoons and raw silk in Brazil and especially in the State of São Paulo. This State, because of its especially favorable climatic conditions, has become the center of silk production and manufacture in the Republic.

In the greater part of the plateau region of São Paulo the mulberry tree flourishes greatly. Campinas, sixty miles northwest of the city of São Paulo, is a railway center in the midst of this region, and was formerly famous for its coffee; but with the exhaustion of its coffee soil, it turned to diversified farming. In 1923, under the orientation of Italian-trained experts, a company was formed for the purpose of promoting silk culture in the vicinity of Campinas and along the railways furnishing easy means of communication thereto, by supplying eggs and mulberry trees to producers, purchasing and reeling cocoons, and giving instruction in the art of sericulture. This was the *Sociedade Anonima Industrias de Seda Nacional* (National Silk Industries Corporation), now the most important establishment of its kind in Brazil.

Favorable climatic conditions are a *sine qua non* for the natural silk industry, and those of São Paulo, especially the eastern plateau zone, make it one of the most favored districts in the world for the cultivation of silk. There the mulberry tree produces leaves quite satisfactory for feeding the silkworm for at least nine months of the

<sup>1</sup> This article was compiled from an exhaustive report on "The Silk Industry in São Paulo" made by Mr. Cameron and on file at the Department of State.—EDITOR.

year, from September to May, inclusive, when the temperature is fairly steady, from 68° to 77° F. From the date of hatching to the completed cocoon, the silkworm in São Paulo rarely requires more than 40 days, and not infrequently the process is completed in 35 days or even less. It would be feasible in a considerable portion of this State to raise six or seven successive crops of cocoons during the nine months of suitable conditions, whereas in Japan, which leads the world in silk production, only two, sometimes three, cocoon crops are produced during the year.

The breeding of silkworms is usually suspended during June, July, and August, as those three months constitute the winter season and leaves are few and unsuitable, while the silkworm is less active at the low temperatures prevailing. Furthermore, the winter season coincides with that of the greatest activity of the coffee harvest when all available help is busy gathering this crop. Indeed, cocoon production as at present practiced in São Paulo is best considered, not as a principal industry, but as merely one of the various activities of diversified agriculture. For that reason, the production is usually limited to three crops per annum, thus permitting more attention to other agricultural activities, smaller establishments for breeding, and fewer mulberry trees. The three crops usually produced in this State (each requiring a maximum of six weeks) are: The spring crop, the best of the three, from the first part of September to the middle of October; the summer crop, the poorest, from the middle of December to the end of January; and the autumn crop, almost equal to that of the spring, from the end of March to the middle of May. This permits the thorough cleaning and disinfection by sunlight and air of the breeding establishments between crops, and the use of the same mulberry trees which, after the gathering of their leaves for one crop, produce a new supply in time for the alimentation of the next crop of silkworms.

In case more crops are produced, more breeding space is necessary, as well as a larger number of mulberry trees. For example, to produce nine crops of cocoons per annum, there must be three groves of mulberry trees, each sufficient to feed one crop at a time and consequently three during the season. There must also be brood houses (*sirgarias*) sufficiently large to accommodate three different broods of larvæ at one time, since the harvests overlap. Nine harvests can be produced, however, only by a more or less specialized plantation, whereas it is considered to be a great advantage of silkworm culture that it may be one among a number of farm crops. The coffee industry has shown the danger of monoculture, and the authorities are now recommending three harvests only per annum. That number is the normal standard, or unit, of production, and six or nine harvests merely mean the multiplication of all factors by two or three.



## THE MULBERRY

The fresh leaves of the mulberry tree constitute the only food of the silkworm, and mulberry plantations are therefore a prerequisite to its breeding. They are also readily eaten by swine, cattle, sheep, and goats. Mulberry wood is fine grained and suitable for furniture and furnishings, and its fruit, similar in shape and taste to the thimbleberry (raspberry), is excellent for eating or preserving. For the silk industry, however, varieties are chosen which produce a maximum of leaves and a minimum of fruit. The genus *Morus* has five species, but the *Morus alba* (white mulberry), *Morus nigra* (black mulberry), and *Morus rubra* (red mulberry), are the most important. The *alba*



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

## PLANTATION OF MULBERRY TREES.

Mulberry trees in São Paulo produce leaves suitable for silkworms during at least 9 months of the year.

and the *nigra* are of Asiatic origin, while the *rubra* is American. The *nigra* produces a good fruit, but the best of all for sericulture is the *alba*, a native of East Asia.

The *alba*, of which many varieties have been developed, is practically the only variety of mulberry planted in Brazil, and silkworms fed with its leaves produce the finest and most perfect silk. Recent experiments in São Paulo seem to show that the quality of silk is greatly influenced by the variety of mulberry from which the leaves are taken to feed the larvæ. The *alba* grows rapidly, and could reach 50 or more feet in height; but it adapts itself readily to the pruning which limits its height and facilitates the gathering of the leaves.



The most vigorous mulberry trees are obtained from seed. Reproduction from seeds tends to the "wild" type—fewer and smaller leaves and considerable fruit. It is therefore usually considered advisable to graft the young trees while still in the nursery with such varieties of the *alba* as the *moretiana*, or *cattaneo*, regarded as more desirable since they produce abundant leaves and little fruit.

Reproduction by cuttings is most rapid; the cuts grow strongly, require no grafting (which greatly retards development), and within a year may be transplanted to the nursery, or even to a permanent location in the plantation.

Well drained, rich loam is the best for a mulberry plantation, the trees being planted in squares or triangles. Catch crops such as corn or beans can be planted with advantage between the rows since, in any case, the ground should be regularly weeded. Another local method of planting mulberries is in the form of a prado or thicket, the plants being placed in rows about 32 inches apart, and 16 inches from each other in the row. The trees also serve excellently as posts for wire fencing, or for fences and hedges, in the latter case being frequently trained with interlacing branches. The mulberry tree thrives throughout most of Brazil, suffering but little from plagues and diseases.

The mulberry is pruned while young to give the proper shape to the skeleton of the tree, that is, to form a maximum of leaf-producing area at a convenient height for gathering; and while under production, at least once a year, after a leaf harvest, not only to fix the form but to eliminate diseased or dead branches, prevent fructification, and stimulate new growth.

The prunings of the tree afford, of course, a certain quantity of leaves, even from very young trees, which may be utilized to feed the silk larvæ, but it is better that the trees should not be subjected to the regular harvesting of all their leaves until two or three years old. The harvesting is effected by stripping, that is, by passing the hand from the base to the extremity of the branch, closed tightly enough to remove all the leaves, but not tightly enough to crush the leaves or injure the buds. In São Paulo, the leaves may be gathered four times, usually in practice restricted to three times, per annum, and in this favorable climate, within 30 days after harvesting, the tree is again covered with leaves. It must be closely watched, however, and the dead and diseased branches removed; a period of rest is often found beneficial. The leaves are gathered in baskets or in small sacks whose mouths are held open with a hoop, care being taken to avoid crushing. The yield of leaves varies widely with the variety of the plantation, richness of soil, vigor of the individual tree, system of pruning adopted, time of harvest, and so forth.

Fresh leaves must always be fed to silkworms, those that have been kept for more than 24 hours being subject to harmful deterioration. For that reason, and for economy in transportation, the breeding quarters (*sirgaria*) are best located close to the mulberry plantation. The leaves must not be bruised in the harvesting, nor gathered wet; on the other hand, they should not be, when gathered, too much heated by the sun. For the young worms, young but not immature leaves are best and should be chopped fine, but for the older worms, older leaves are best and are given whole. Some breeders prefer to feed the larvae during the last week with branches pruned off the tree and still covered with fresh leaves. One gram of silkworm eggs of the varieties most used in São Paulo should produce from 1,000 to 1,500 or even more larvae, and of these 1,000 should, on the average, reach maturity and spin cocoons. The producer, having in mind the fact that the silkworms from each gram of eggs during the 30-day eating period will consume on an average of 40 kilograms <sup>2</sup> of leaves, and taking into account the age and condition of his mulberry trees, can calculate the number of eggs he is equipped to hatch and feed.

There are, at the present time, probably over 15,000,000 mulberry trees in the State of São Paulo, according to estimates of the *S. A. Industrias de Seda Nacional*.

#### THE SILKWORM

The silkworm, a native of eastern Asia, is known scientifically as *Bombyx mori*, sometimes as *Sericaria mori*. It is a perfect insect, passing in its development through the full cycle of metamorphoses, including egg; larva which, according to variety, moults three or four times; chrysalis; and moth. It has, however, been cared for by human beings so long (apparently at least five millenniums) with protection from the elements and consequent modification of its habits, that it has become a domestic animal and lost the ability to thrive except with human care. The moth is a mere fluttering body less than an inch long, with short stubby wings incapable of flight, while the larva is delicate and quite subject to diseases. Its breeding therefore demands great attention and the best results are obtained only after considerable experience.

The varieties of the silkworm have numerous characteristic differentiations, of which those relating to form and quality of cocoon are of the most interest to the silk industry. As to form, the cocoon may be ovoid, ellipsoid, spherical, belted (shrunken at the middle of the long diameter), cylindrical, or pointed at one or both ends; as to color, it may be white, green, rose, or yellow tending to the golden. Moreover, crossing has produced all possible intermediate colors and

<sup>2</sup> Kilogram equals 2.2 pounds.—EDITOR.

shapes. The same is true of the size, which varies from a maximum of about 2.48 inches in length and 1.42 inches in width, to a minimum of about 0.98 and 0.47 inch. Color, however, is a purely exterior characteristic, being a quality of the overlying sericin, which comes off when the silk is scoured; all common silk is white after scouring. The size and shape of the cocoon do not determine in themselves its desirability for silk-producing purposes. The latter depends upon the size, evenness, strength, brilliance, elasticity, and other qualities shown by the filament, the ease with which the cocoon may be unwound, and the percentage of the total weight of the cocoon made up by the useful filament.



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

A BROOD HOUSE AT JABOTICABAL, SÃO PAULO.

Some of the brood houses in Brazil are constructed of brick and tile, though the usual ones of thatch are quite satisfactory. The houses have few windows, since the direct rays of the sun are injurious to the silkworm.

As in the case of most domesticated animals, crossing of races, deliberate selection of certain characteristics by breeders, and relief from the inexorable conditions imposed by environment and the struggle for existence have given rise to a vast number of varieties of the silkworm. These varieties, moreover, have developed more or less in accordance with geographic areas and, in general, the races of silkworm are now divided into geographical groups, as follows: Chinese, Japanese, European, and Biancastri, or West Asian (Persia and Turkey). Forty-seven distinct races of silkworms have been listed, Japan being credited with the largest number, 14, and Italy coming next with 12.



Italian and Chinese varieties are the favorites in São Paulo. The principal races acclimated here are the Chinese golden, Italian yellow (spherical and belted), and white Japanese. By crossing the Chinese and Italian races there were obtained two new varieties which have been developed and more or less fixed by the Sericultural Institute of the *S.A. Industrias de Seda Nacional*. The two new races are the *super ouro do Brasil* (Brazilian super golden) of medium size, ellipsoid, and golden in color, which accentuates the good qualities of the Chinese ancestry with greater production of silk; and the *amarelo Campinas* (Campinas yellow) in which the qualities of the Italian yellow race predominate. Both of the new Brazilian races have robust larvæ and produce silk of quality equal or superior to the best European silk.

With certain variations due to variety, the eggs of the *Bombyx mori* are about one millimeter in diameter, and it takes from 1,000 to 1,500 to weigh one gram. After determining that the body of the moth is free from disease, the practice in São Paulo is to soak the eggs off the sack of paper or cotton cloth upon which they have been deposited and to which they naturally adhere, the eggs being recovered from the bath in fine sieves. The varieties raised in São Paulo reproduce but once a year, and more robust larvæ are obtained if the eggs are subjected to the temperatures of the northern climate where the species originated. The natural temperature of São Paulo is satisfactory for the first four months after production, as it resembles sufficiently the summer of the north. For the next four or five months, however, the eggs should be placed in a refrigerator, with a temperature gradually reduced to a minimum of about 35° F. The temperature is then gradually raised to simulate that of spring. When needed for hatching, the temperature is raised to that of the outer air, and they are removed from the refrigerator. In São Paulo, eggs are distributed to the farmers for the first crop about the first of August, having been packed in small wooden frames covered with cloth to insure ventilation. By retaining the eggs in the refrigerator, they may be preserved for the summer and fall crops. Following the European custom, the unit for egg distribution in Brazil is the ounce, always equal to 30 grams.

An even temperature of 71° to 73° F. is best for hatching eggs, although they will incubate satisfactorily at 64° F. Ordinarily in São Paulo, artificial heat is necessary only in case of unseasonable weather, or to avoid brusque changes of temperature. The eggs, when received by the farmer, are spread out in a shallow open wooden or cardboard box or tray, some establishments being equipped with an apparatus resembling a cabinet with drawers, but so constructed as to insure constant ventilation, and with facilities for heating, if necessary. Within 10 days, the time varying according to the con-



dition of eggs and to the temperature, the eggs hatch, the operation usually continuing over several days.

Sheets of stiff paper punched with small holes are placed upon the trays where the hatching has occurred, and finely chopped mulberry leaves spread on top. This attracts the newly-hatched larvæ, who creep through the small holes to the top of the cardboard, scraping off any bits of eggshell still adhering; they may thus be transported wherever desired. The same system, using stiff paper with holes of the proper size, is used for handling the silkworm throughout the larval period, since the larvæ must be removed and the tray cleaned every day or two. The larvæ are raised upon trays or mats woven of bamboo or wire, usually about 40 inches square, and these trays are placed on shelves arranged in tiers, each about 20 inches above the next lower; the whole collection is called a *castello*, or "castle." The shelves may, if desired, be suspended from the ceiling.

Any dry, well-ventilated building will serve for raising the silkworm. The brood house (*sirgaria* or *magnanerie*) should, however, preserve an even temperature, preferably from 71° to 87° F., and in São Paulo the climate is usually satisfactory without artificial heating for at least seven months, from September to March, inclusive. The growing silkworms demand continually increased space; it is calculated that the larvæ from each gram of eggs will require 27 square feet of tray for the final stages, and that a room 16.5 feet square and 13 feet high will give sufficient space for the shelves and trays necessary for the raising of the larvæ from one ounce, that is, 30 grams of eggs.

Four times during their growth the larvæ of the varieties grown in São Paulo cease eating and rest immobile for about 24 hours, while the outgrown skin cracks and is abandoned. At first the young larvæ must be fed four to eight times a day, the mulberry leaves being finely chopped and sprinkled on the tray. The larvæ of the brood which hatched first are kept on a separate tray and fed less, and those hatching later are fed more, in order to equalize their size, which should be accomplished by the first moult. Those approaching maturity receive whole leaves and, of course, in much greater quantity.

After finishing their feeding, the larvæ, now mature, pass about 24 hours in inactivity, their bodies become semitransparent, and the silk glands swell. They then become restless, and about the thirty-first day will climb upward in search of a suitable place to spin their cocoons. To provide such a place, branches of dry brushwood loosely assembled, called locally the *bosque* (forest), are placed above the tray, or the latter is moved to a *bosque* prepared elsewhere. If all goes well, of each gram of eggs hatched, about 1,000 larvæ will spin cocoons.

The spinning of the cocoon requires four to six days, and the harvest, or gathering of the cocoons, can usually be effected on the forty-first or forty-second day after hatching. The cocoons are spun in the center of a mass of loose silk fibers attached by the larvæ to neighboring branches or other supports, and many such fibers remain clinging to the cocoons when they are gathered. These must be cleaned off either by hand, which is a slow process, or in a simple machine in which the cocoons pass over revolving cylinders armed with short teeth. The clean cocoons are then packed in baskets of woven bamboo called *jacas* (usually cylindrical in shape), and shipped to the filature.



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

#### INTERIOR OF A BROOD HOUSE.

The platforms holding the mats upon which the silkworms are raised are arranged in tiers of three. From 35 to 40 days elapse from the hatching of the silkworm to the completion of the cocoon.

The moth will develop and emerge in from 12 to 18 days, depending largely upon the temperature, from the time of finishing the cocoon. The moth does not cut or break the fibers, but moistens the end of the cocoon with a dark liquid which it secretes in its mouth, and parts the fibers, using its head and forefeet; this operation, nevertheless, spoils the cocoon for reeling purposes. A pierced cocoon, as it is called, is serviceable only for waste silk, that is, the fiber is treated much as cotton, and spun, not unwound into a single long fiber and then combined with other fibers to make thread. Consequently, in order to preserve the integrity of the cocoon, it is necessary that the pupa be killed (or "suffocated" as the term used in Brazil is) before

the moth has time to develop. This suffocation is effected by either steam or dry heat, preferably the latter, since it facilitates drying, and for preservation, cocoons must be thoroughly dried after suffocation. The suffocation may be carried out by the producer if, owing to distance or other circumstances, a considerable time may elapse before the arrival of the cocoons at the filature. In São Paulo, however, most of the producers have good railway communication with the Campinas filature, and by shipping promptly the cocoons reach the filature in good time for suffocation before any are spoiled by piercing.

Owing to the artificial existence of the silkworm, it is especially liable to disease. These diseases are due originally to conditions of weather, environment, food, and so forth; an epidemic may destroy a brood in a few days. The eggs, larvæ, and cocoons must also be protected from animal enemies, such as rats, mice, cockroaches, and ants.

Eggs for the reproduction of silkworms should be produced only at an establishment equipped with scientific personnel and apparatus to insure the elimination of diseases in so far as possible. The silkworms destined for reproduction are either produced in the filature itself, or selected by a representative of the egg-producing establishment during the larval stage, when condition as to health and vigor may be thoroughly examined. The cocoons from such broods are especially packed and carefully sorted upon arrival at the filature, all those not having the desired characteristics as to size, shape, color, quality of silk, and so on, being suffocated. Owing to a slight difference in weight, male cocoons may be separated from female cocoons and so equal numbers of both sexes preserved for development into moths.

After impregnation the female deposits its eggs, from 400 to 600 in number. The mother moth is enclosed in a paper sack, perforated for ventilation, or is placed upon a small sack of cotton cloth confined by a truncated cone of tin open at the top. In either case the mother dies within about a week and its dry body is preserved in the sack for desiccation and later examination. If disease is found the eggs are destroyed; otherwise they are preserved, as already described, for later distribution and hatching.

#### THE COCOON

The object of the whole industry is the production of perfect cocoons. From the point of view of the filature defects of cocoons include: Irregularity in shape, which would make reeling difficult; thin walls (usually on the ends), which would permit water to enter and cause the cocoon to sink, thus making reeling difficult; stains, usually caused by the death and decomposition of the pupa; color



different from that of the other cocoons of the lot; double cocoons, caused by two larvæ spinning their cocoons so closely together that they are united and so difficult or impossible to reel; pierced cocoons, caused by the development and exit of the moth; and cocoons injured or pierced by rats, mice, or other pests.

From 400 to 800 green cocoons, that is, cocoons just spun with the live chrysalis inside, are required to make a kilogram. The individual green cocoons of the varieties most raised in São Paulo average about two grams in weight, of which one sixth, sometimes slightly more, is silk. The cocoon consists of three layers: The rough exterior; a fine network lining the interior of the cocoon; and the



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

#### A BROOD HOUSE INTERIOR AT THE NOVO JÁPÃO FAZENDA.

The trays contain silkworms in the brush, or *bosque*, and cocoons just gathered. Unless the pupa is killed by heat before the moth has had time to develop and emerge, the cocoon will be spoiled for reeling purposes. The latter must therefore be shipped promptly to the filature.

intermediate, principal layer, made up of reelable silk. The latter constitutes about one half of the total silk, the exterior and interior layers making up the other half, unsuitable for reeling. Consequently, when treating of green cocoons, from one tenth to one twelfth of the total weight is considered to be reelable as raw silk, such portion consisting of a filament from 2,300 to 2,460 feet in length.

After purchase, the cocoons are killed generally by dry heat, which must not be permitted to exceed 176° F., and thoroughly dried, the combined operation taking about 12 hours. Three kilograms of green cocoons produce one of dry cocoons. If, however, the cocoons are to be reeled at once, time may be saved by killing with



steam without drying, since the reeling operation requires soaking in water. Green cocoons are received at the filature only for eight months of the year, from October to May, and in order to equalize the supply and keep the filature occupied during the rest of the year, storage is necessary. After drying, the cocoons are classified for reeling, being first spread on wide tables where girls carefully pick them over for defects and separate them according to color. Machines are used to clean off the loose floss remaining on the cocoon and to separate the cocoons by sizes. When satisfactorily graded they are put in large sacks, labeled, and stored.

The filament produced by the silkworm is in reality double, being formed by two apertures, one on the right and the other on the left of the larva's spinneret. The fibers themselves are composed of a substance called fibroin, but these are covered and united by a gum called sericin, which gives to the filament its distinctive color—white, yellow, green, or rose. The gummy sericin causes the overlying threads of the cocoon to adhere and, when dry, gives the cocoon firmness. For the unwinding (reeling) of the cocoon, the sericin is softened with hot water and soap. The sericin is also the agent which, in the process of reeling several cocoon filaments together, causes the several filaments to unite and form the apparently uniform and homogeneous thread of the raw silk. The scouring of the silk, also accomplished with hot soap suds, is merely the removal of the sericin, which constitutes roughly about one fourth of the total weight of raw silk.

Cocoons to be reeled, after having been soaked for a short time in hot soapsuds, are placed in basins of hot water, where they float on the surface. They are then subjected to the action of a circular brush which turns back and forth and which, in a few minutes, will gather up the loose fiber on the outside of the cocoon and enable the operator to discover the master filament. One cocoon of the varieties most produced in São Paulo will average from 3,300 to 3,600 feet of filament, of which only 2,300 to 2,460 feet, however, are serviceable for raw silk.

There is a good deal of thread of irregular size on the outside of the cocoon and a certain other quantity on the inside of the cocoon, both unsuitable for reeling. The art of the reeler consists in producing an even thread. The filament produced by the silkworm is larger at first and grows gradually smaller toward the interior. To obtain an even thread of a uniform diameter the operator must combine filaments from different sections of the cocoon, and further, as the diameter of the filament varies proportionately to the size of the cocoon, must select cocoons of the same size or offset a small cocoon with a larger one. It takes long practice to make a good reeler. From four to fourteen cocoons may be used to produce a thread, but

the number is ordinarily five or six. The filaments are brought together, passed over various supports, and twisted back around themselves several times while the sericin is still warm and viscid. In this way the several filaments coalesce and the thread is made smooth and round. It then passes backward to a square reel, from which, when a sufficient amount has accumulated, it is removed in the form of a skein. This is the raw silk of commerce.

The raw silk is then cleaned by winding it on bobbins and passing it from one bobbin to another through a narrow slit. It may then be woven, but ordinarily it is further prepared, several threads being combined (this process being known as "doubling"), and then twisted for the manufacture of the various kinds of yarn. Scouring—the cleaning off of the sericin—may be done before or after weaving.

#### OFFICIAL SUBSIDIES

Although the silkworm and the mulberry have been cultivated to a certain extent in Brazil for more than a century, the industry of sericulture gave few signs of progress until about ten years ago. It then took on a more promising aspect, due not only to the high price of silk but to systematic and extensive Government aid.

From 1907 to 1910, Federal laws of June 13, 1907, and December 31, 1908, provided prizes for growing mulberries and producing cocoons, and for factories using national cocoons.

In 1912 two silk-growing experimental stations were established by the Federal Government, one in Rio Grande do Sul, which was soon discontinued, and another at Barbacena, in Minas Geraes, which has continued until the present. The Barbacena station has recently been converted into the *Inspetoria Regional de Sericultura*. Moreover, by a decree of November 22, 1932, the Federal Government appropriated 100 contos to assist in the construction of a sericultural station in the State of Bahia.

The Federal budget for 1923 contained general provisions for subsidizing the silk-growing industry, such provisions being elaborated in an executive decree of September 15, 1923. The decree provided in general that the first three concerns having a capital of not less than 1,500 contos<sup>3</sup> established for the development of the sericultural industry might, provided they satisfied certain requirements, be granted specified subsidies and bonuses for a period of five years. The firms favored thereby were to encourage sericulture by teaching modern methods; study silkworm diseases and maintain modern establishments capable of producing, preparing, and distributing 10,000 ounces of healthy eggs per annum; produce and distribute mulberry trees; give practical instruction in sericulture in at least six model

<sup>3</sup> Conto equals 1,000 milreis.—EDITOR.

stations; undertake the purchase of all cocoons produced with the eggs distributed; maintain establishments for reeling these cocoons and twisting yarn; and maintain plantations of at least 100,000 mulberry trees and nurseries of at least 500,000 young trees.

The only concern to receive the advantages of this decree was the *S.A. Industrias de Seda Nacional* of Campinas, whose contract, dated December 31, 1923, assured the company the benefits of the legislation for a period of five years, i.e., up to December 31, 1928. The renewal of the contract, with certain modifications, was authorized by Federal decree of August 23, 1932, to run for a period of five years from January 1, 1932.



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

#### A SERICULTURAL STATION.

A shipment of cocoons packed in the straw baskets (*jacas*) is shown ready for dispatch to the railway station. The production of cocoons for the last year has been estimated at more than 1,000,000 pounds.

In 1928 the State of São Paulo also granted assistance to this company by a State law of December 20, authorizing a subvention of 250 contos per annum for five years. The company in turn agreed, among other undertakings, to maintain ten model silkworm breeding stations and mulberry nurseries at different points in the State; to furnish without charge up to 500,000 grams of silkworm eggs and 2,500,000 mulberry plants to the producers of the State; to purchase cocoons from such producers at a specified minimum price; and to admit three agronomists at State expense for study in its establishment. The law permitted the extension of this assistance for five years. In the meantime, another company (*Sericultura Bragantina*) had started operations, and a law of December 23, 1929, authorized assistance



to sericulture in general. The revolution of 1930, however, occurred before this projected assistance was finally regulated or made effective. The São Paulo State Government now gives no direct subsidy to the natural silk industry.

In São Paulo a dozen or more of the most interested municipalities have enacted laws granting favors for the planting of mulberry trees and the production of cocoons, sometimes providing for free distribution of eggs and young trees, and offering prizes for the production of the most cocoons per gram of eggs, for the production of the best cocoons, etc.

In 1925 practically all the railways of São Paulo agreed jointly to grant free transportation for mulberry trees and silkworm eggs shipped to producers, for cocoons, and for empty cocoon baskets (*jacas*) being returned to the producer. Recently, however, this free transportation has been replaced by a low tariff, the cocoons and empty *jacas* being granted a tariff about 40 percent of that to which their classification would have formerly subjected them.

Of the other Brazilian States, Minas Geraes is the most prominent in the natural silk industry. It was one of the first States to attempt scientific sericulture, and the efforts of the State Government received, in 1912, the cooperation of the Federal Government through the establishment of the sericultural station at Barbacena. This station, situated on the Central do Brazil Railway, 235 miles north of Rio de Janeiro, has done much to awaken interest in sericulture throughout Brazil. By a contract dated August 9, 1926, later modified, the Minas Geraes State Government, for a period of five years, granted an annual subsidy of 100 contos to the *Sociedade Mineira de Sericultura* of Barbacena. In return, the company undertook to construct establishments for raising silkworms in different parts of the State, teach sericulture, and distribute silkworm eggs and mulberry trees free of charge. As in São Paulo, numerous municipalities of Minas Geraes have voted prizes or other assistance to cocoon producers. Some of the best cocoons of Brazil are produced at Colonia Padre José Bento, near the São Paulo border, the yield being sometimes three kilos per gram of eggs, whereas two kilograms per gram is considered a good crop. This colony also devotes attention to silkworm eggs, its production in 1931-32 being 4,964 kilograms.

#### PRESENT STATE OF SILKWORM PRODUCTION IN BRAZIL

Practically all of the commercial production of raw silk in Brazil is concentrated at present in the State of São Paulo. Moreover, the propaganda work being carried on and the distribution of eggs and mulberry trees are of such magnitude as to assure a steady progress here.



The climate of São Paulo is undoubtedly excellent for silkworms, and good varieties have already been developed and adapted to the climate, and their type has been fixed. Another great advantage which São Paulo enjoys is ready access to establishments equipped to produce healthy eggs, furnish eggs and mulberry trees in large quantities, and purchase the crop of cocoons. The network of railroads and highways in the State enables the producer to ship cocoons in the "green" state, thus avoiding the necessity for him to do the killing and drying processes, which demand special apparatus and experience. In the more remote sections of Brazil, although mulberry trees may be reproduced by slipping, healthy eggs are difficult to obtain, since they can be produced only in laboratories having microscopes, refrigerators, and a trained personnel of scientists and biologists. Eggs sent to distant points from São Paulo or Barbacena frequently hatch en route, owing to delay. It is probable, also, that considerable crossing and scientific experimentation will be necessary in order to develop a variety of silkworm wholly suitable to the tropical portion of Brazil and to determine the best technique for producing cocoons in that warm climate.

Exact figures are not available as to the cocoon production of the State of Minas Geraes nor of the extent, at the present time, of the activities of the Barbacena Station. The latter, however, in its capacity as Federal Sericultural Station, is continually conducting propaganda in favor of silk culture throughout the country, and ships silkworm eggs and mulberry trees to all points of Brazil, from Amazonas to Rio Grande do Sul, receiving also the harvests of dry cocoons which may be shipped from those points. Barbacena has the only filature in practical operation outside of São Paulo. In a recent statement, the director of that station advised that the Barbacena nurseries had more than 800,000 mulberry trees, and distributed more than 300,000 annually.

In the other States, the condition of sericulture varies greatly. In Amazonas, mulberry trees are being planted around Manáos, and the possibility of producing twelve crops of cocoons per year has been demonstrated, since in that climate the mulberry produces leaves continuously.

Mulberry trees are being planted and some cocoons produced in Pará, especially in the Japanese colonies around Acará, 85 miles south of Belém, the capital. The Federal experiment station for tobacco at Tracuateua also devotes some attention to silk culture.

In Maranhão and Piahy the Federal interventors are conducting active campaigns and distributing mulberry trees, while in Pernambuco, Alagôas, and Sergipe mulberry trees are being widely planted in spite of the fact that little official encouragement has been given to the silk industry in these three States.

The Departments of Agriculture of Rio Grande do Norte and Parahyba have sericultural services, thousands of mulberry trees have been planted, and a small quantity of cocoons produced. Rio Grande do Norte offers a premium of 500 milreis for each thousand mulberry trees a year old and a meter high.

In Bahia there are large plantations of mulberry trees, especially in Ilhéos, on the coast some 125 miles south of the capital, and a sericultural station is about to be established, 100 contos aid for this purpose having been appropriated by the Federal Government.



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

#### MACHINERY FOR REELING COCOONS.

At the right are two of the basins with reversing brushes, one of which is shown in the basin, the other lifted. These circular brushes remove the loose fiber from the cocoon and enable the operator to locate the master filament which is wound on the reel at the left. This basin is equipped to reel simultaneously the filament from eight cocoons which float in water in the basin beneath.

In Espírito Santo there is already a State sericulture station in Vargem Alta, on the Leopoldina Railway, about 75 miles southwest of Victoria, the capital. The State has a large number of Italian immigrants, who are showing great interest in cocoon raising.

Rio de Janeiro and the Federal District already produce cocoons in some quantities, and at Padua, about 250 miles northwest of Rio de Janeiro on the Leopoldina Railway, near the Espírito Santo border, there is quite a center of production. The establishment of a filature there is now being considered.

Goyaz and Matto Grosso are already exporting a few cocoons to the filatures in Barbacena and São Paulo.

Cocoons have been produced in a score of municipalities in Paraná, and most of them shipped to Campinas. In Curityba, the capital of the State, the establishment of a filature is being discussed.

Very little has been done in the State of Santa Catarina on account of poor communications and the difficulty of disposing of the cocoons, although climatic conditions are excellent.

At the same time that the Barbacena Sericultural Station was established in Minas Geras in 1912, another sericultural station was established in Bento Gonçalves, Rio Grande do Sul, but it was soon given up. Now, however, great interest in sericulture is being shown throughout the latter State, and hundreds of thousands of mulberry trees are being planted. Silkworm eggs and mulberry trees are being obtained from Barbacena or from Campinas and cocoons shipped to these points. Recently, a small machine for reeling cocoons was installed at Granja Carola, near Porto Alegre.

It has been estimated that in Brazil as a whole a maximum of 600,000 kilograms of green cocoons was produced in 1932. Many of these, of course, were used for reproduction, while a further considerable quantity, especially those produced in outlying stations, were experimental and were not reeled. One company, *S. A. Industrias de Seda Nacional* of Campinas, purchased during the last silk year (1932-33) more than 457,000 kilograms of cocoons, practically all those produced in the State of São Paulo. In addition, the filature of the Sericultura Bragantina purchased a small quantity. The two filatures mentioned, with which the sericultural station of Barbacena should be included, are at present the only filatures in Brazil doing commercial work of any importance.

At the present time throughout the world, in Brazil as elsewhere, cocoons are produced by families of farmers who devote part time to this industry, producing from one to three crops per annum, and depending almost wholly upon women and children for the necessary labor except during the last week, when the adult larvæ require more attention and a greater supply of mulberry leaves. This labor is, of course, more or less unskilled, depending on past experience. The methods employed are empirical, unsuitable outbuildings or rooms of the dwelling are often used as brood houses, implements are often makeshift, and crops of silkworms are too frequently decimated or wholly lost through carelessness, ignorance, or inefficiency.

Since the mulberry tree in Brazil produces leaves satisfactorily during at least nine months of the year and, in the warmer sections of Brazil, the whole year round, there is now being elaborated in Campinas the idea of establishing especially constructed buildings and producing cocoons continuously and intensively with carefully trained personnel and under the continuous observation of scientific experts. A new crop would be begun each week, or even more fre-



quently, and moved from one section of the building to another as conditions required, the buildings being equipped so as to maintain the most favorable temperature and degree of humidity required by each stage of development of the larvæ. Food and sanitary conditions, matters often carelessly attended to by the farmer, would be closely watched, and individual larvæ showing the first indications of disease would be immediately eliminated. It has been calculated that by such methods cocoons may possibly be produced more cheaply and of a better grade than is now the case even in such countries as China, Japan, and Italy, where labor is poorly remunerated. Within



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

#### TWISTING SECTION OF A SILK MILL AT CAMPINAS.

Here the raw silk is wound, thrown, twisted, and made ready for use as yarn in the weaving of fabrics. Silk production is a Brazilian industry that has developed largely during the past 15 years.

a few years this system will have been given a thorough trial and it will then be possible to speak more intelligently of the future of the natural silk industry in Brazil.

#### PRODUCTION OF MANUFACTURED SILK GOODS

The silk manufacturing industry of Brazil is centered largely in São Paulo, where it has grown up chiefly since the World War. In 1920 there were only ten small factories in the State producing goods to the value of about a million dollars. The industry rapidly expanded with the general trend of business during that period and was, furthermore, greatly stimulated by the fall in Brazilian exchange, which automatically increased the tariff protection. The maximum



value of production was reached in 1929, but with the general crisis, coupled with increasing cost to the public of silk articles, the consumption of the latter has decreased, with a corresponding reflex upon the local silk weaving industry. Nevertheless, the stimulus afforded by high tariffs has continued to encourage the development of São Paulo's natural silk and rayon industries.

In 1932, São Paulo alone imported through Santos, 386,134 kilos of natural silk, raw and in yarn, valued at \$1,879,662, São Paulo filatures producing during the same year, 33,497 kilograms valued at \$240,887. Consequently, of a total supply during 1932 of 419,631 kilograms, the local filatures produced only about eight percent. In 1932, all Brazil imported 530,290 kilograms of natural silk, raw and in yarn, valued at \$2,586,417, corresponding to a green cocoon production of about 12 times that quantity, or more than 6,360,000 kilograms. In view of São Paulo's investment of more than \$5,000,000 in silk weaving factories; the high tariffs on silk imported into Brazil; and exceptionally favorable climatic conditions there, especially in southern Brazil, for cocoon production, the possibility of increasing Brazil's production of natural silk, at least sufficiently to supplant importation, is receiving great attention in the State and is of interest to countries exporting raw silk and yarn, as well as to Brazil.

The total value of silk and rayon articles imported into all Brazil and Santos in 1920 was \$8,781,204 and \$3,102,309 respectively. Except for a brief reaction during the boom years of 1927 and 1928, the totals decreased steadily, being in 1932 \$2,767,696 and \$1,912,439 respectively. During these 13 years the percentage of imports through Santos had increased from 35 to 69. Moreover, the percentage of the total corresponding to yarn has been continually growing at the expense of manufactured goods, as a result of the development of local silk weaving and knitting mills. In 1920, 30 percent of the total value of silk and rayon imports into all Brazil was represented by yarn, while in 1932 the percentage of yarn was 94. Furthermore, of the value of the silk and rayon yarn so imported in 1932, 99 percent was raw silk and natural silk yarn. Santos has therefore more and more attracted silk imports to feed its silk knitting and weaving mills.

Silk exports from either Santos or all Brazil are practically nonexistent.

The number of factories manufacturing textiles, ribbons, and lace in São Paulo increased from 10 in 1920 to 59 in 1931, and the number of workers from 1,478 to 4,773. The value of the products from these factories was, at the current rate of exchange, \$1,045,709 in 1920 and \$4,744,257 in 1931, although in 1929 which, as has been said, was the year at which silk manufacturing reached its peak, the

value of the silk manufactured was \$18,786,594. Approximately seven eighths of the products of these factories are textiles containing more than 50 percent of silk or floss silk, vegetable or animal, or mixed with other fibers in equal parts; in 1931, 354,256 kilograms were produced, valued at \$3,724,567, at the current rate of exchange. In the same year 43,679 kilograms of ribbons, either pure silk or mixed with other fibers, valued at \$887,847, and 9,405 kilograms of lace, 50 percent or more of silk, worth \$131,843, were also manufactured.

The articles manufactured from pure silk, either natural or rayon, and in addition to textiles, ribbons, and lace, include silk stockings, dyed silk yarns, hats, and shoes of silk textiles, silk or velvet slippers, and neckties of silk or mixed textiles. São Paulo is a great center of the knitting industry, principally hosiery, but the yarn used is rarely pure silk or rayon, having usually a greater or lesser admixture of cotton or wool. In 1931 there were 149 knitting mills in the State, having a combined capital of 24,687 contos, with 4,961 workers, 21,333 spindles, and 3,516 knitting machines, and producing in that year knitted goods of all sorts worth \$3,447,826 at the current rate of exchange.





## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

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### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Official spelling in Brazil.*—The Chief of the Provisional Government, Dr. Getulio Vargas, signed on August 2, 1933, decree no. 23,028, which provides that the orthography as defined in law no. 20,108 of June 15, 1931, shall be obligatory in all official publications. The new spelling, which is based on phonetics rather than on etymology, is that agreed upon by the Brazilian Academy of Letters and the Academy of Sciences of Lisbon to simplify the language and make it uniform throughout the lands where Portuguese is spoken. The Brazilian Academy of Letters has now published an official lexicon, so that there will be no difficulty in putting the new system into practice. The decree not only makes the use of the new spelling obligatory in all publications of the Government, the universities, and other institutions of learning that are either public or under Government supervision, and in all documents submitted for official consideration, but stipulates that beginning January 1, 1935, only those textbooks whose spelling is in accordance with the decree will be admitted in the schools.

*Publications in Mexico in 1931.*—From the *Anuario bibliográfico mexicano de 1931*, compiled by Señor Felipe Teixidor, interesting statistics have been republished by Lic. Gilberto Louo in *El libro y el pueblo* for July 1933. During that year there were published in Mexico 638 works, 417 of which were pamphlets. Of these, 68.5 percent were written by men and 5.9 percent by women, the balance having been published by institutions. The greatest number were devoted to applied science and technology; next in order came literature, education, and, finally, geography and travel.

*Libraries in El Salvador.*—A children's library has been opened in the city of Ilobasco as part of the Colegio Mixto "La Inmaculada." Señorita Nicolasa Recinos and Señorita A. García have been appointed librarian and assistant librarian, respectively.

As part of the celebration in June of the Día del Maestro in Santa Ana, a library was established in the Escuela Normal de Varones, with Dr. Saúl Florez as librarian.

*The National Library of Colombia.*—Among the activities of the National Library of Colombia during the past year were the completion of an intellectual census of the country, the establishment of a traveling library through the southwest, the broadcasting of special programs, and lectures on sociology, history, education, art, and literature. Dr. Daniel Samper Ortega, the librarian, is honorary director of the Government broadcasting station.

*Wileman's Brazilian Review*, the weekly journal of trade, finance, economics, and shipping published in English in Rio de Janeiro for many years, suspended publication with the issue of March 19, 1933, because of the death of the editor and owner, Mr. H. F. Wileman. Its many readers will be pleased to note that this valuable journal resumed publication with the issue of August 7, 1933, and the present editor plans to continue it as heretofore.

*New books and magazines.*—The following list has been compiled from books which have been received during the past month:

*Un ensayo de escuela nueva en el Perú* [por] J[osé] A[ntonio] Encinas. Lima, Imp. Minerva[?] 1932. 251 p. 23 cm.

*A Constituição dos Estados Unidos; as lições de uma longa experiência—federalismo norte-americano e federalismo brasileiro* [por] Victor Viana. Rio de Janeiro, Typ. do Jornal do commercio, 1933. 232 p. 24 cm.

*Hacia el abismo; la crisis del talón de oro, disertaciones político-económicas*, por el Lic. José Luis Requena. Mexico [Talleres de "Previsión"] 1933. 353 p. 23 cm.

*José Martí. apóstol, héroe y mártir. Oración pronunciada* [por Nestor Carbonell] en el Instituto popular de conferencias, sala de fiestas de "La Prensa", el día 16 de junio de 1933. Buenos Aires, Julio Suárez, 1933. 48 p. 18 cm.

*Rawson, su monumento*, septiembre 1º de 1928 [publicado por la] Comisión nacional de homenaje a Rawson. Buenos Aires, Gerónimo J. Pesce y cía., 1933. 304 p., plates, ports. 29 cm.

*Los orígenes de Montevideo, 1607-1749* [por] Luis Enrique Azarola Gil. Buenos Aires, Librería y editorial "La Facultad" [1933] 285 p. 25 cm.

*La organización social del trabajo en el Ecuador* [por] Gregorio Ormaza E. Quito, Imp. de la Universidad Central, 1933. 65 p. 26½ cm.

*Contribución al estudio de la guerra federal en Venezuela* [por] Dr. José Santiago Rodríguez. Tomo segundo. Caracas, Editorial "Elite", 1933. 439 p. 23 cm.

*Bolivianas; ensayos históricos* [por] Lucila L[uciani] de Pérez Díaz. Homenaje al Libertador en el sesquicentenario de su natalicio. Caracas, Editorial "Elite", 1933. 352 p. 20 cm.



*Haitian directory* (hand book of Haiti), André Fils-Aimé, chancellor of the Consulate general of Haiti [in New York], editor. New York, Suite 617, 90 Broad Street, New York City. 226 p. port. 27 cm.

*Devoción de patria* [por] R. Cayama Martínez. (Segunda edición) Caracas, Tipografía la Nación, 1930. 213 p. front.(port.) port. 23½ cm.

*La legislación del trabajo en México*; la constitución y la ley federal de trabajo, estudio comparado [por] Mariano R. Tissembaum]. Santa Fe, Imprenta de la Universidad [1933] 129 p. 26½ cm.

*Historia del Ferrocarril del Sur* [por] Roberto Crespo Ordóñez. Quito, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 273 p. 23 cm.

*Cuatro figuras colombianas*; Mosquera, Liborio Mejía, el General Posada Gutiérrez, Nuñez [por] Raimundo Rivas. Bogotá, Editorial Cromos, 1933. 248 p. 20½ cm.

*Series hemero-bibliográficas* [por] Santiago Key-Ayala. 1ª serie bolivariana. Caracas, Tipografía Americana, 1933.

*Historial genealógico de familias caroreñas*. Carora, Tip. Arte, 1933. 2v. 22½ cm.

*Así son los niños*; crónicas, ensayos y comentario a observaciones y experiencias vividas en la escuela [por] N. Rivera Caceras. Primera edición. [Arequipa] Ediciones Leer, 1932. 137 p. plates. 20½ cm. (Colección Escolar)

*The Mar year book*; River Plate shipping manual 1933 dealing entirely with shipping regulations and maritime matters including charts and tariffs in the Argentine and Uruguayan ports. 2nd ed. Buenos Aires, Editorial Mar [1933] 216 p. 10 fold. charts. 25½ cm.

*Bibliografía del estado de Morelos* [por] Domingo Díez . . . Mexico [Imprenta de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores] 1933. 427 p. 20½ cm. (Monografías bibliográficas mexicanas, número 27)

*Historia de las leyes*, tomo xx, legislatura de 1931, edición ordenada por la Cámara de representantes [de la República de Colombia] y dirigida, concordada y anotada por Horacio Valencia Arango . . . Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 391 p. 25 cm.

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*Saltillo comercial*; órgano de la Cámara nacional de comercio. Saltillo, 1933. No. 5, tomo I, 15 de septiembre de 1933. 26 p. ports. 27 x 20 cm. Monthly. Editor: Alfredo de León jr. Address: Apartado no. 135, Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico.

*"Jalisco agrícola y ganadero"*, revista mensual; órgano de las secciones de agricultura y ganadería del estado. Guadalajara, 1933. 36 p. illus. 38 x 20 cm. Vol. I, no. 1, septiembre 1933. Monthly. Editor: Ing. Andrés Macías. Address: Secciones de agricultura y ganadería del Estado, Palacio de gobierno, Guadalajara, Jalisco, México.

*Revista de economía y finanzas*. Lima, 1933. 63 p. 24 x 17½ cm. Año I, vol. II, n.º 7, julio de 1933. Monthly. Editor: Pedro Barrantes Castro. Address: Casilla de correos 2438, Lima, Perú.

*Revista colombiana*. Bogotá, 1933. p. [321]-352. 24½ x 17 cm. Vol. I, número 11, septiembre 1º de 1933. Biweekly. Address: Librería Nueva, Apartado 81, Bogotá, República de Colombia.

*Boletim do Instituto da ordem dos advogados brasileiros*. Rio de Janeiro, 1932, 100 p. 23 x 16 cm. Volumen X, n. 1. Setembro de 1932. Irregular. Address:

Instituto da ordem dos advogados brasileiros, 4 Avenida Augusto Severo, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

*El Demócrata*; órgano del "Demócrata" sport club. San Cristóbal, 1933. [18] p. 30 x 22 cm. Año III, núm. 28, julio 24 de 1933. Address: Demócrata sport club, San Cristóbal, Táchira, Venezuela.

*Lucero latino*, New Orleans, La. 112 p. illus. 29 x 21½ cm. Vol. 1, no. 1, julio, 1933. Monthly. Editor: F. E. Morales. Address: 400 St. Charles St., New Orleans, La., U.S.A.

*Noticias para la prensa [de la] Sociedad panameña de acción internacional*. Panamá, 1933. 5 p. 25½ x 20½ cm. Boletín no. 1, agosto 10, 1933. Address: Sociedad panameña de acción internacional, Panamá.

*La revista contemporánea*. Cartagena, 1933. 32 p. 22 x 26 cm. Tomo I, número I (segunda época) julio de 1933. Monthly. Address: La Revista contemporánea, Cartagena, República de Colombia.

*Universidad*; órgano del Centro jurídico de la Universidad de Nariño. Pasto, Colombia. 28 p. port. 23 x 17 cm. Año 1, números 1 y 2, julio 20 de 1933. Address: Universidad de Nariño, Pasto, Departamento de Nariño, República de Colombia.

*Atalaya*. Cali, Colombia. 68 p. illus. 24 x 21 cm. Agosto 7 de 1933. Monthly. Address: Atalaya, Cali, Departamento de Valle, República de Colombia.

*El mercurio*. Bogotá, 1933. 20 p. illus. 34 x 24½ cm. Año I, no. 1, junio, 1933. Monthly. Editor: August Moncada. Address Apartado 864, Bogotá, República de Colombia.

*Revista da Escola militar*; órgão oficial da Sociedade academica militar. Realengo, Brasil. 72 p. illus., ports. 32 x 23½ cm. Año XXXII, junho, 1933. Monthly. Editor: Rivaldo de Góes. Address: Escola militar, Realengo, Brasil.

*El Nacional*; el semanario de la vida hispanoamericana. Chicago, Ill., 1933. 6 p. 56 x 40½ cm. Año VIII, número 725, septiembre 2, 1933. Weekly. Editor: Sam Fraga. Address: 737 South Halsted St., Chicago, Ill., U.S.A.

*Dominical*. Caracas, 1933. illus. 41 x 27 cm. Año I, número 12, mes ii, 24 de julio de 1933. Address: San Francisco a Pajaritos, no. 29, Caracas, Venezuela.



## PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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### RECENT FINANCIAL LEGISLATION ENACTED IN EL SALVADOR

A law which places the coffee industry of El Salvador under the protection and supervision of the State, and another which creates a government bank designed to act at first as an agricultural credit institution and to become eventually a central bank with the sole right of issue in the Republic, are the last two of a series of financial measures enacted by the National Legislative Assembly to meet the agricultural crisis and especially to ameliorate the critical situation of the coffee industry, the principal source of wealth of the country. The first of these measures,<sup>1</sup> as modified by a subsequent legislative decree,<sup>2</sup> established a new temporary subsidiary coin, the silver colón, weighing 25 grams and having a fineness of 900/1000, which need be accepted only up to 40 percent of the obligation in the discharge of all private debts, but which the Government, and all government-subsidized institutions, will accept at par—2 colones for 1 gold *peso* (United States gold dollar)—in payment of all public dues except custom duties. The President of El Salvador was authorized by the Assembly to purchase the 5,000,000 coined silver colones, pay for them with a portion of the proceeds of the coffee export tax, and with the previous authorization of the national assembly fix the terms of payment therefor. The currency thus obtained was to form part of the funds of a credit institution to be designated by law and to be applied exclusively for the promotion and protection of agriculture, especially the coffee-growing industry. The next step was the enactment of a law<sup>3</sup> allocating in favor of a Business Cooperation Fund (*Caja de Cooperación de Negocios*), to be created by special law, 62 percent of the 80 percent of the coffee export duties not affected by the temporary arrangement made on May 15, 1933, with the holders of the 1922 bonds of the Republic.

With the Silver Currency Law and a modification of the Business Cooperation Fund Act as a basis, the Legislative Assembly then enacted the Coffee Defense Law<sup>4</sup> and decreed the establishment of the Bank of El Salvador.<sup>5</sup> The first of these measures places the cultivation, production, cleaning, and sale of coffee under the pro-

<sup>1</sup> Decree No. 90, *Diario Oficial*, San Salvador, June 17, 1933.

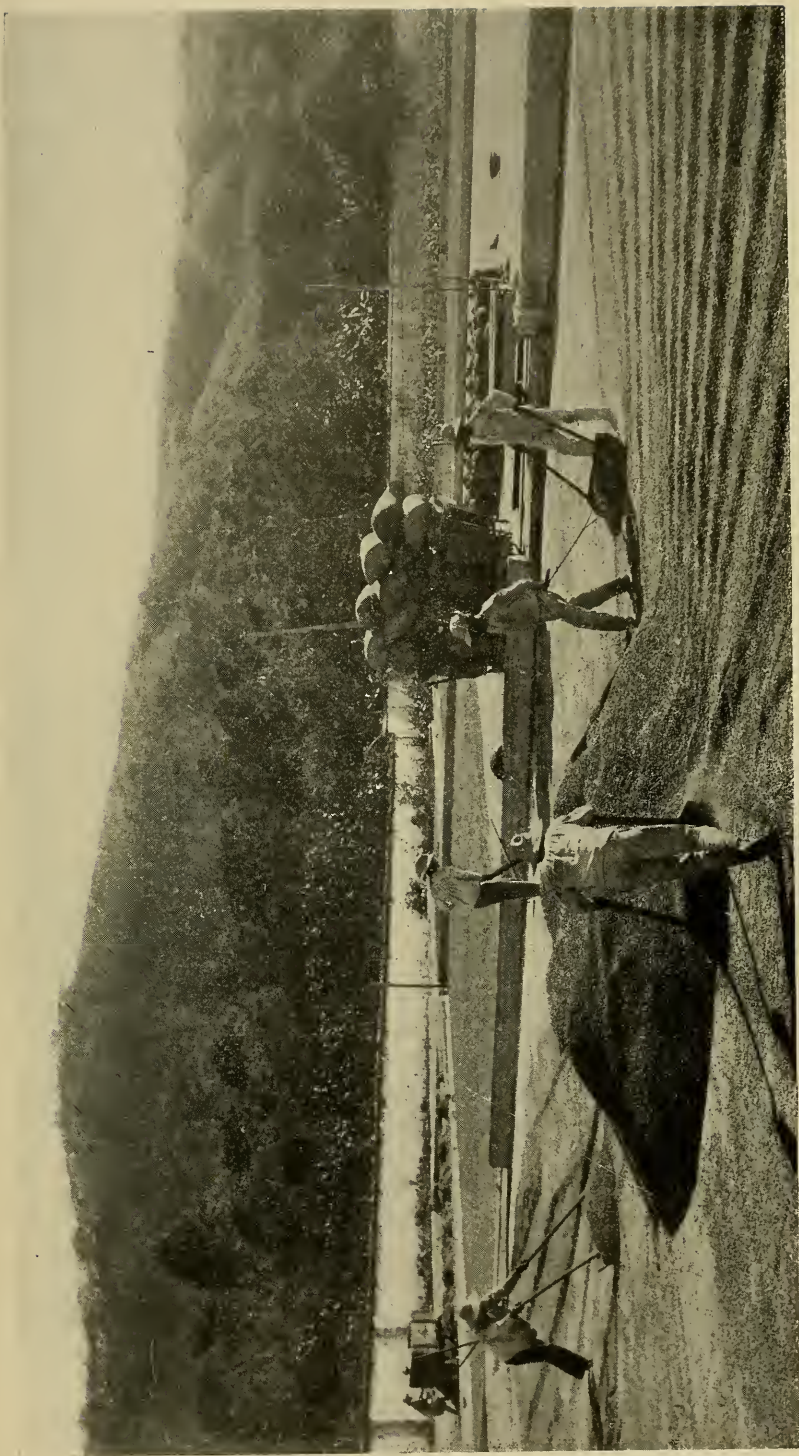
<sup>2</sup> Decree No. 119, *ibid.*, July 15, 1933.

<sup>3</sup> Decree No. 106, *ibid.*, July 6, 1933.

<sup>4</sup> Decree No. 142, *ibid.*, July 28, 1933.

<sup>5</sup> Decree No. 143, *ibid.*





DRYING COFFEE ON A PLANTATION IN EL SALVADOR.

The recent enactment of the coffee defense law places the entire industry, from cultivation to exportation, under Government protection and supervision.



tection and supervision of the State and creates the Commission for the Defense of Salvadorean Coffee (*Comisión de Defensa del Café Salvadoreño*), known as the C.D.C.S., to determine and carry out the general policy of the State toward the coffee industry. Coffee producers who wish to join the C.D.C.S., thereby placing themselves under the protection of the Government, must submit an application giving detailed information as to their business and stating their desire to become active members of the National Association of Coffee Producers and their willingness to accept the regulations of the C.D.C.S. for the period including at least the complete cycle of production and sale of their coffee crop in the year in which they become affiliated. The C.D.C.S. is specifically empowered to regulate and control the weights and measures used in all coffee-cleaning plants; the proportion of clean coffee of the various grades which such establishments must deliver to producers, in accordance with the quantity of green or dried coffee taken to the plant and the section of the country in which the coffee was produced; to lease and manage coffee-cleaning plants or make collective contracts between affiliated producers and coffee cleaners; to secure minimum freight rates through public bidding; to control the importation and manufacture of bags or other containers used in the transportation of coffee; and to organize and control a Central Coffee Sales Office with at least six agencies in the principal foreign markets for Salvadorean coffee.

The Central Sales Office is forbidden to speculate on its own account and is to act only as an intermediary between the producers and the buyers of coffee. It is empowered to establish in El Salvador coffee warehouses; to issue warrants of deposit which will be accepted as security for loans by the Bank of El Salvador; and to ship and store coffee abroad; and to sell it at the best prices obtainable when so ordered by the original owner or the person to whom the warrant of deposit has been transferred. In general, the office may transact all lawful operations connected with the exportation and sale of coffee. The Ministry of Finance will maintain a permanent representative in the Central Sales Office to see that the provisions of the law and the regulations of the C.D.C.S. are carried out; his authorization will be required for all transactions.

The Government is jointly responsible with the C.D.C.S. for all obligations contracted by that organization in accordance with the provisions of the Coffee Defense Law.

The C.D.C.S. is to be made up of four members and their respective alternates elected by the coffee growers and five members appointed by the Government: the Minister of Finance, the Undersecretary of Agriculture, the Comptroller General of the Republic, the Director General of Taxes, and a coffee grower chosen by the Executive. In accordance with a temporary provision of the Coffee Defense Law

empowering the Executive to appoint the first representatives of the industry, the President has chosen the following coffee growers: <sup>6</sup> Dr. Miguel Angel Giammattei, of Santa Ana; Señor Francisco Acosta, of Abuchapán; Dr. J. Antonio Quirós, of San Miguel; Dr. Salomón Zelaya, of Usulután; and Señor José Bernal, of San Salvador. The representatives of the coffee growers in the C.D.C.S. will ordinarily hold office for five years, but of this first group one is to be removed each year by lot and his place taken by a representative of the coffee growers chosen at an annual election. Each producer affiliated with the C.D.C.S. is entitled to one vote in this election, whether such producer is an individual, a company, or a corporation.

The coffee producers affiliated with the C.D.C.S. will be entitled to have the payment for their coffee made through the Sales Office either in drafts, bills of exchange or letters of credit of the Bank of El Salvador against foreign banks, or in colones at the current rate of exchange, as they prefer. While emergency financial laws are in force in the Republic the Bank of El Salvador, with the approval of the C.D.C.S., will also take care of the interest on the debts of affiliated producers and, through the C.D.C.S., furnish them with funds for the cultivation and maintenance of their coffee states.

The sum loaned to any one producer will be limited by a prudent estimate of what he needs to carry him from one crop to the next, including interest on his debts, which will be deducted by the Bank and paid to his creditor. The exact amount of the loan is to be fixed by the C.D.C.S., the maximum being 50 percent of the value of the crop. This loan will preferably be made on open account and the interest must not exceed 6 percent per annum. As the Government is desirous of fostering the formation of cooperative societies among coffee growers, the Bank is to arrange its transactions so as to give preference to members of such societies.

The Government is to loan without interest to the C.D.C.S. the 5,000,000 silver colones already mentioned, with which the C.D.C.S. will in turn purchase shares in the Bank of El Salvador. From the proceeds of the export tax on coffee, 49.6 percent (62 percent of the 80 percent of the coffee export duties not affected by the bondholders agreement of May 15, 1933), will be set aside to reimburse the Government for this loan. The C.D.C.S. is to issue certificates, representing this 49.6 percent of the export tax on coffee, to be delivered to the coffee producers in accordance with the amounts of coffee they export. These certificates will in turn be exchangeable for shares in the Bank.

The Bank of El Salvador is to be a stock company organized for a period of 25 years, with an authorized capital of 25,000,000 colones

<sup>6</sup> *Diario Oficial*, San Salvador, Aug. 21, 1933.



A COFFEE WAREHOUSE.

Coffee forms nearly 90 percent of the total exports of El Salvador.

divided into shares of 100 colones each. It will, however, begin to do business with the 5,000,000 silver colones to be subscribed and paid by the C.D.C.S. The bank shares will be divided in three series: A, B, and C. Those in series A will represent the contribution of the agricultural interests of the country toward the capital of the bank; the shares to be subscribed by the C.D.C.S. will belong to this series. Shares subscribed by the Government will be known as series B, and those subscribed by individuals, or by foreign or domestic companies, as series C. The Minister of Finance has been authorized to subscribe for ten series B shares in the name of the Government and each coffee producer affiliated with the C.D.C.S. is to subscribe for at least one series C share.

The law which created the Bank of El Salvador empowers it to transact the following operations:

1. Receive savings and deposits.
2. Obtain domestic and foreign credits to facilitate the purchase and sale of agricultural products and merchandise on a reciprocity or barter basis.
3. Facilitate funds to the sales office of the C.D.C.S. in exchange for first-class securities, for a period not exceeding one year.
4. Buy and sell drafts on foreign banks, and commercial paper offered by enterprises of recognized standing.



5. Grant loans on crops at the request of the C.D.C.S., provided the products which are pledged are sold through the sales office of the C.D.C.S., unless the debtor prefers to repay the loan in cash.

6. Deal in every kind of securities related to the bank's function, with the previous approval of the board of directors and the representative of the Ministry of Finance.

7. Discount, rediscount, and sell agricultural paper maturing within a year, when endorsed by at least two persons of recognized standing and approved by the C.D.C.S.

8. Open credits in account current for cooperative societies of coffee growers, provided the members of the cooperative are jointly responsible and the transaction is recommended by the C.D.C.S. The total of these credits must not exceed 25 percent of the capital of the bank.

9. Act as a foreign agent for institutions of good financial standing.

10. Advance funds on the warehouse warrants issued by the sales office of the C.D.C.S., up to 50 percent of the value of the coffee stored.

11. Receive deposits for a period no longer than a year from foreign banks or commercial concerns for investment in Salvadorean securities.

12. Coin fractional currency at the request of the Government.

13. Coin gold and silver currency whenever especially authorized by the National Assembly.

14. Import gold and silver in such quantities as may be needed for circulation.

15. In general, transact all the banking operations usually done by banks of issue, provided they do not contravene the provisions of this law.

16. Become a central bank through an arrangement with existing banks when such a change will be beneficial to the interests of the Republic and the bank.

17. Transfer funds from its main office to branches throughout the Republic and vice versa, without charge to the interested parties.

18. Receive valuable objects for safekeeping.

19. Purchase gold coin, bullion, and objects made of gold.

The Bank of El Salvador is also empowered to issue bank notes in accordance with the legal provisions in force as to the issuance of notes and with the following special provisions:

1. The Bank must have in its vaults a 35 percent metallic reserve for such issue while the notes of the banks of issue now in existence remain non-exchangeable for gold, and a 40 percent reserve when these notes become so redeemable. This metallic reserve may consist of:

(a) Gold coin or bullion at the rate of 0.836 miligram of gold 900/1000 fine for each colon.

(b) Silver coin or bullion at the rate of the intrinsic value of the silver to gold.

(c) Gold coin or bullion on deposit abroad. This last reserve may not exceed 30 percent of the total circulation. Ten percent of the profits of the bank are to be set aside to form a special fund until such a fund is equal to the value of the silver reserve.

2. All issues must be also guaranteed by some one of the operations which the bank is empowered to transact, and notes may be issued only as a result of such transactions.

3. The bank may issue notes to meet installation and general expenses, the amount of this issue to be made public in the *Diario Oficial*, the Government's official organ.

4. The notes of the Bank of El Salvador will not be redeemable in gold as long as the notes of the other banks of issue are not.



There are three banks of issue in El Salvador: The Banco Salvadoreño, the Banco Occidental, and the Banco Agrícola Comercial. The law provides that when the concessions of these banks expire, the Bank of El Salvador shall be the sole entity possessing the right of issue in the Republic.

The law forbids the Bank of El Salvador to:

1. Purchase its own stock.
2. Own other real estate than that absolutely necessary for the conduct of its business.
3. Engage directly in manufacturing, commercial, or agricultural ventures.
4. Guarantee or subscribe to national or municipal bonds.
5. For the time being, loan money on mortgages.
6. Transact operations for a term longer than one year.
7. Keep for more than one year real estate which it may receive in payment of debts.
8. Make advances or loans to directors and officers of the bank or to high Government officials. It may not make loans to the officials who constitute either the C.D.C.S. or the Central Coffee Sales office, unless the transaction is backed by first-class security unanimously accepted as such by the directors of the bank.
9. Transact operations without security.
10. Speculate in any manner with currencies, securities, or products of any kind.

The management of the Bank of El Salvador will be under the supervision of the C.D.C.S., which will appoint the board of directors, consisting at present of three members, one of whom may be a foreigner. Natural or judicial persons and foreign or domestic commercial or financial enterprises may elect one director apiece when they have subscribed to the capital of the bank, or have in deposit, over one million colones. This right may be exercised by one person or entity or by a group whose composite investments or deposits exceed that sum; such directors will hold office for the period during which their sponsors have the necessary interest in the bank.

The Bank of El Salvador will be exempt from the payment of all taxes and the interest which it pays on savings and deposits will be equally tax exempt.—G.A. S.

## AMERICAN CONTRIBUTIONS TO OUR DAILY LIFE

The debt of civilization to American products is graphically illustrated in a permanent exhibit in the Southwest Museum of Los Angeles. The attention of the visitor is called to this fact by a placard reading, "To the American Indian the world today owes five-sevenths of its agricultural wealth. This case contains samples of the many plants he developed and gave to the white man." Wherever possible the actual article is displayed, even in the case of potatoes, which last from six weeks to two months in the case. The containers are, whenever obtainable, of the same provenance as the material; for instance, maple sugar is displayed in a birch-bark bowl, Pueblo Indian corn in a Hopi bowl, lima beans in a gourd from South America, and chocolate in a Central American pottery vessel.

Besides foodstuffs, the exhibit contains examples of medicines, fibers, gums, and dyes. The actual products shown include: foodstuffs, Indian corn (colored Hopi corn), Indian squash (two varieties), red kidney beans, frijoles or Mexican beans, lima beans, Irish potatoes, yams, wild rice, tapioca (manioc), chocolate, maple sugar, peanuts,



EXHIBITION OF NATIVE AMERICAN PRODUCTS IN THE SOUTHWEST MUSEUM, LOS ANGELES.

pecans, vanilla beans, tonka beans, cashew nuts (salted), and chile peppers; medicines, quinine (cinchona bark and quinine capsules), cascara bark, sarsaparilla root, sassafras bark, and tobacco; fibers, cotton bolls and sisal; gums, rubber, copal, and chicle (as chewing gum); and dyes, añil (indigo), logwood, fustic, and cochineal (both the powder and the dried insects).

The following menu, made up of foods entirely American in origin, was prepared by Dr. J. A. E. Scherer of the Museum:

#### THANKSGIVING MENU

---

Corn or Tomato Soup

---

Turkey with Cranberry Sauce

Muscovy Duck with Candied Sweet Potatoes

Pineapple Ice

---

Creamed Potatoes

Kidney Beans      Squash      Lima Beans

Jerusalem Artichoke

---

Avocado Salad

---

Tapioca Pudding      Pumpkin Pie

Vanilla Ice Cream

---

Chocolate

Pecans      Maple Sugar

Cigars and Cigarettes

## NECROLOGY

DANIEL SÁNCHEZ DE BUSTAMANTE.—Bolivia mourns the death of Dr. Daniel Sánchez de Bustamante, noted jurist, diplomat, educator and statesman. Born at La Paz in 1871, the son of an old and distinguished Bolivian family, Dr. Sánchez de Bustamante served his country during his many years of public life as a member of the Chamber of Deputies, the Supreme Court, the university faculty and the city councils of Sucre and La Paz as well as diplomatic envoy to Chile and Argentina, a delegate to various international conferences and Minister of Public Instruction and Foreign Affairs. He was first appointed to head the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1908 after making a three year study of the educational systems of Argentina, Chile, and Europe. His tenure of office was short but fruitful, for he not only founded several educational institutions, among them the first normal school at Sucre and the national school of commerce at La Paz, but had an opportunity to present a complete plan for the reorganization of the educational system which was unanimously accepted by the Bolivian Congress. His second appointment as Minister of Public Instruction was in 1917. Prior to that, in 1909, he was Minister of Foreign Affairs, taking part in the negotiations which led to the final settlement of the boundary question with Peru. His post as Minister Plenipotentiary to Chile he resigned to take part in the conferences with Paraguay which took place in Buenos Aires in 1927 and 1928. Three years later he was again appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, resigning to take the post of Minister Plenipotentiary to Argentina. He served in that capacity until a few months before his death at Buenos Aires on August 5, 1933. A versatile writer, Dr. Sánchez de Bustamante is probably best known as an author for his works dealing with the international problems of Bolivia.

ANTONIO DE TOMASO.—With the death of Dr. Antonio de Tomaso at Buenos Aires on August 3, 1933, there ended the career of a brilliant Argentine parliamentarian, a man who rose from the most humble beginnings to become one of his country's leaders. Born in Buenos Aires in 1889, the son of Italian parents, Dr. de Tomaso began his political career at the age of 20 as a secretary in the National Chamber of Deputies. An ardent supporter of the Socialist Party, he made a political speech which soon led to his dismissal from the Chamber. He vowed to return and scarcely four years later was elected to that body before he had attained the minimum age of 25 required by law. In that same year (1914) he finished his law studies and



received the degree of doctor of laws from the University of Buenos Aires. When his party split in 1927 he led the dissenters and was one of the founders and the leading spirit of the Independent Socialist section. Through successive elections he retained his seat in the Chamber of Deputies for 16 years until the legislature was dissolved as a result of the 1930 revolution. The following year when General Agustin Justo was elected President of Argentina, Dr. de Tomaso was called to serve in his cabinet as Minister of Agriculture, a post he held until his untimely death. Both in the legislature and the cabinet he was an indefatigable worker and was responsible for the enactment of numerous and important legislative measures.

OLEGARIO MACIEL.—One of the most prominent figures in Brazilian public life, Dr. Olegario Maciel, Governor of the State of Minas Geraes, died at Bello Horizonte on September 5, 1933. Born in 1855, during his long and distinguished career Dr. Maciel served his country in numerous and important public posts. In 1880, two years after his graduation from the Polytechnic School, he was elected provincial deputy. When the Empire of Dom Pedro II was overthrown in 1889 he was elected to the state legislature and to the national assembly which was to draft a constitution for the new-born republic. Since the meeting of this first Federal Congress in 1890 he represented the State of Minas Geraes in the national legislature until 1910 when on account of his health he retired temporarily from public life. An engineer of recognized ability as well as a distinguished statesman he was appointed during the administration of President Wenceslau Braz (1914-1918) inspector general of the railway services, a most important post, since at time the Government was studying the revision of all railway contracts. In 1923 he was chosen vice governor of his native state, serving as chief executive after the death of Governor Raul Soares in 1924. Upon leaving this office he was again elected to the State Senate and for many years was president of that body. In 1930 he was elected Governor of Minas Geraes and acted in this capacity until his death. One of the great leaders of the *Alliança Liberal*, Dr. Maciel played a prominent role in the organization of the present régime in Brazil. In recognition of his services to the country Dr. Getulio Vargas, Chief of the Provisional Government of Brazil, decreed that he be buried with the honors due to a President of the Republic.



ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA

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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



A PORTAL IN TIAHUANACU, BOLIVIA

DECEMBER

1933

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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UNION OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS



# BULLETIN

OF THE

# PAN AMERICAN UNION

DECEMBER

1933



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# THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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*Director General*

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; and the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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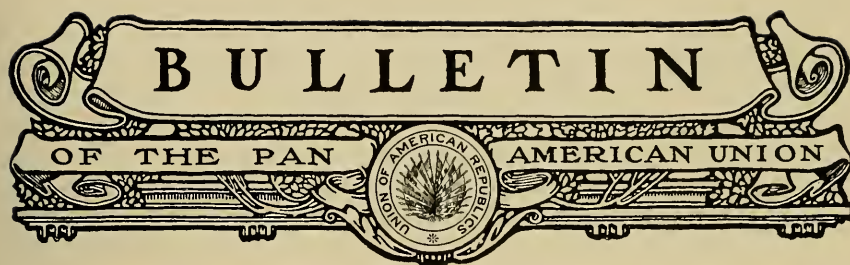
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Photograph by Underwood & Underwood.

HIS EXCELLENCY THE PRESIDENT OF PANAMA, DR. HARMODIO ARIAS.

During his recent visit to the United States, Dr. Arias held a series of conferences with President Roosevelt bearing on the relations between Panama and the United States.



## THE VISIT OF DR. HARMODIO ARIAS PRESIDENT OF PANAMA TO THE UNITED STATES

ON SUNDAY, October 8, 1933, His Excellency the President of Panama, Dr. Harmodio Arias, arrived in New York on the steamer *Quiriguá*, en route to Washington, where he was to be the guest of President Roosevelt for a few days. The distinguished visitor was met at quarantine by Mr. James Clement Dunn, Chief of Protocol of the Department of State, and Mr. George R. Merrell, an officer in the same Department.

On his arrival in Washington late Monday afternoon, President Arias was formally received at the Union Station by the Secretary of State, as representative of the President; the Hon. Jefferson Caffery, Assistant Secretary of State; the Secretary to the President; Capt. Walter Newhall Vernou, the President's Naval Aide; Col. Edwin E. Watson, the President's Military Aide; Mr. Edwin C. Wilson, Chief of the Division of Latin American Affairs of the Department of State; Mr. Charles Lee Cooke, Ceremonial Officer of the Department of State; and Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union. A troop of cavalry and a cordon of marines awaited His Excellency's arrival, and rendered him the appropriate salutes; the United States Marine Band played the national anthem of Panama. President Arias was accompanied by the Secretary of State to the White House, where President Roosevelt awaited his distinguished guest.

Official entertaining in honor of President Arias began the following day with a state dinner given by the President and Mrs. Roosevelt at the White House, and continued with a luncheon given by the Secretary of State at the Hotel Carlton on October 11, and a reception at the Legation of Panama on Columbus Day. On the 11th, Doctor



Arias took leave of his host and departed from the White House for the legation of his country, where he remained until his departure from Washington.

During his visit at the White House, President Arias held conversations with President Roosevelt and with members of the State Department in which questions concerning the relations between the two countries were discussed. At the conclusion of these conferences the following joint statement was issued by the two Presidents:

"We have talked over in the most friendly and cordial manner the field of Panamanian-American relations. The fact that the Canal Zone is set down in the midst of Panama makes us neighbors in the most intimate sense of the word, and it is in the interest of both our countries that we should be 'good neighbors'.

"We are in accord on certain general principles as forming the bases of the relations between Panama and the United States insofar as the Canal Zone is concerned, as follows:

"1. Now that the Panama Canal has been constructed, the provisions of the Treaty of 1903 between the United States and Panama contemplate the use, occupation, and control by the United States of the Canal Zone for the purpose of the maintenance, operation, sanitation, and protection of the Canal.

"2. In view of that purpose the Republic of Panama is recognized as entitled, as a sovereign nation, to take advantage of the commercial opportunities inherent in its geographical situation so far as that may be done without prejudice to the maintenance, operation, sanitation, and protection of the Panama Canal by the United States of America, which is earnestly desirous of the prosperity of the Republic of Panama.

"3. The Government of the United States would sympathetically consider any request which the Government of Panama might make for the solution by arbitration of any important question which might arise between the two Governments and may appear impracticable of decision by direct negotiations, provided that such question is purely economic in its nature and does not affect the maintenance, operation, sanitation, and protection of the Canal.

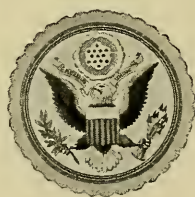
"With regard to the activities of the United States in the Canal Zone, Panama feels that some of them constitute a competition prejudicial to Panamanian commerce. The United States has agreed to restrict and regulate certain activities; for example, special vigilance will be exercised to prevent contraband trade in articles purchased from the Commissaries; sales of 'tourist' goods from the Zone Commissaries for resale on ships transiting the Canal will be prohibited; sales of other goods to ships from the Canal Zone Commissaries will be regulated with the interests of Panamanian merchants in view.

"The services of the United States hospitals and dispensaries in the Canal Zone will be limited to officers and employees of the United States Government and of the Panama Railroad Company and their families, excepting only in emergency cases; admission to the restaurants, clubhouses, and moving-picture houses in the Zone will be similarly restricted.

"The United States also intends to request of Congress an appropriation to assist in repatriating some of the aliens who went to the Isthmus attracted by the construction work of the Canal and have now come to constitute a serious unemployment problem for Panama.

"The clause binding lessees or contractors of the restaurants to purchase their provisions from or through the Commissaries will be abrogated. The United States Government furthermore is prepared to make the necessary arrangements in order that Panama may establish, at the terminal ports of the Canal, houses and guards to collect duties on importations destined to other portions of Panama and to prevent contraband trade."

President Arias returned to Panama by air, via Mexico and the Central American Republics; in all the countries through which he passed he was received most cordially by Government officials and the people.





SEÑOR DON MANUEL TRUCCO  
AMBASSADOR EXTRAORDINARY AND Plenipotentiary of Chile in the  
UNITED STATES.

## SEÑOR DON MANUEL TRUCCO AMBASSADOR OF CHILE IN THE UNITED STATES

WHEN His Excellency Señor don Manuel Trucco presented to President Roosevelt, on October 17, 1933, his letters of credence as Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Republic of Chile to the United States, he said in the course of his address: "The Government and the people of Chile . . . follow, with profound interest, the courageous efforts of Your Excellency to overcome the acute crisis now afflicting the world, and wish fullest success to the leader whose inspiration transcends national frontiers, since from the recovery of the economic life of the United States they expect to derive the benefits inherent in the daily greater interdependence of peoples."

To that sentiment President Roosevelt replied, "I greatly appreciate the heartening good wishes and interest expressed by Your Excellency on behalf of your country in the efforts which we are making in this country to defeat the forces of depression, as well as your sympathetic understanding of my country's determination to adhere to a policy of neighborliness and mutual helpfulness toward the other American nations."

Señor Trucco was born in the city of Cauquenes in 1874. He attended school there and in Santiago where, at the Instituto Nacional, he specialized both in the humanities and in mathematics. Later he entered the University of Chile, graduating with the degree of civil engineer in 1899. While pursuing his engineering studies, he taught mathematics in the Instituto Nacional.

In 1901 he won an appointment to a professorship in the architectural school, and shortly thereafter became a professor in the school of engineering. A fellowship from the University of Chile enabled him to spend the years 1902-04 in Paris as a student in the École Nationale des Ponts et Chaussées. On his return to Chile he resumed his teaching at the university, where he remained until 1918. During that period he was for 8 years dean of the department of mathematics, and also served as director of the schools of architecture and engineering.

For many years Señor Trucco was an engineer of the Department of Public Works and of the National State Railways, and eventually became Director General of the latter, holding this office from 1918



until his retirement from public service. In 1922 he visited the United States on a technical mission. Señor Trucco was also one of the founders of the Institute of Engineers, and has been a regular contributor to the *Anales*, the official publication of the Institute.

As a member of the Radical Party he was elected Senator of the Republic in 1926, and later vice president and then president of the party. During the administration of Acting President Juan Esteban Montero, Señor Trucco was appointed Minister of the Interior, and on Señor Montero's nomination for the Presidency, he became Acting President, on August 22, 1931, until the latter's inauguration on December 4 of the same year.

Señor Trucco represented Chile in the First South American Railway Congress, which met in Buenos Aires in 1910, and presided over the third congress when it met in Santiago in 1929.



## THE TREASURE OF MONTE ALBÁN

### EXHIBITION IN THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

**D**URING the week of October 30, 1933, the Pan American Union was thronged with visitors; besides the normal number passing its beautiful portals came added thousands especially to see the famous treasure of Monte Albán. Who made these delicately wrought objects of gold? Who polished the rock crystal bowl and jade beads? Who carved in exquisite design these jaguar bones? Surely a people of high culture and artistic sensibility, must be the answer of all who had the privilege of seeing the treasure. Here, under the flags of all the American Republics, were arranged the cases containing the many objects of art whose discovery almost two years ago near Oaxaca in Mexico caught the popular imagination.

The exhibition was brought to Washington at the combined invitation of the Carnegie Institution of Washington and George Washington University, and at the private showing of the treasure a brief explanation of its significance was given to the distinguished guests. Señor Luis Padilla, Chargé d'Affaires of Mexico, presided; seated with him on the platform were Dr. John C. Merriam, president of the Carnegie Institution; Dr. Cloyd H. Marvin, president of George Washington University; Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Dr. Daniel F. R. de la Borbolla, a member of the staff of the National Museum of Mexico, in charge of the treasure; and Señores Leduc, González, and Torres, of the staff accompanying the treasure. Dr. de la Borbolla, in addressing the audience that overflowed the Hall of the Americas, said:

Students of American archaeology agree that the scientific material gathered up to the present time gives evidence that man did not originate on this continent, but that the cultures that we today study are indigenous. Mexico is very fortunate in having at least four well-defined aboriginal cultures, the development of which was due to a change in the life of the people from the nomadic state to the agricultural. These four cultures of Mexico seem to be closely interrelated, to have certain cultural factors in common. Two of them are very well known to you: The Maya culture in the southern part of Mexico and the culture of the high plateaus of the central part of Mexico, called Toltec or Aztec.

But there are two other cultures very little known until now. One is the Zapotec, the other the Mixtec. Remains of the Mixtec and Zapotec cultures are found in the southern part of Mexico, in what today is known as the State of Oaxaca. The importance of the study of this culture was realized five years ago when Dr. Alfonso Caso, Director of the National Museum, wrote a book on Zapotec hieroglyphic inscriptions.

The Carnegie Institution of Washington, the Mexican Government, and other scientific institutions have been very much interested and have done a great deal



Courtesy of Dr. Daniel F. R. de la Borbolla.

#### THE NORTH PLATFORM IN THE UPPER PLAZA OF MONTE ALBÁN.

The great stairway, approximately 130 feet in width, is shown in course of restoration. At a level somewhat below the main plaza is Tomb No. 7, wherein were found the treasures that have since attracted world-wide attention.

of work in the Maya region. The cultures of the high plateaus of Mexico have been partially studied, but up to 1930 very little was known of the Zapotec and the Mixtec. The geographical location of these two cultures and the scientific material which was available up to 1930 gave evidence that the Mixtec and Zapotec cultures were probably the link between the great Maya culture and that of the high Mexican plateaus.

The purpose of the work in Monte Albán was primarily to find hieroglyphic material of the Zapotec people; to find the relations and similarities between the Mixtec and Zapotec cultures; to find the relations and similarities between the cultures of the high plateaus of Mexico and those of the low regions.

Monte Albán is located approximately 200 miles southwest of Mexico City. The archaeological site is on top of a hill five miles south of the modern city of Oaxaca. The work on this site is directed by Dr. Alfonso Caso and members of the staff of the National Museum, and was begun in 1931. The purpose of the exploration in the first season of work was to make a survey of the cemetery, already known to scientists, and to reconstruct two of the most important buildings on Monte Albán. The work began with the exploration and restoration of the main platform in the northern section of the upper part. At the same time a very careful survey of the cemetery was undertaken, and at the beginning of 1932 we were able to explore the first tomb.

It may seem impossible to you that Monte Albán, being a decidedly Zapotec site, should contain among the many tombs that have been explored, one containing objects belonging to the Mixtec culture, as was the case with Tomb No. 7, in which all these relics that we have here today were found. Monte Albán seems to be the boundary between the Zapotec and the Mixtec cultures in the State of Oaxaca. We know that Monte Albán was built by the Zapotec people, but we also know that Monte Albán was invaded several times by the Mixtecs. Even today we find a certain amount of rivalry and feeling between these two groups.

### A GOLD MASK.

This small mask, slightly more than 3 inches in height, represents the god Xipetotec, the deity of vegetation and of the jewelers.



### A GOLD BREAST-PLATE.

This pectoral, notable for its fine workmanship as well as for its scientific value, represents a Knight of the Tiger.



Courtesy of Dr. Daniel F. R. de la Borbolla.



Tomb No. 7, where all this collection was found, is a Zapotec tomb. It was built by the Zapotecs, and used by them for a burial. Later on the Mixtecs invaded Monte Albán, took out the Zapotec burial, and placed in it their own. That is the reason why we find these beautiful Mixtec remains in a Zapotec archaeological site. Tomb No. 7 is located on the north slope of the hill of Monte Albán. The tomb is perfectly built with first a roofless vestibule, then a chamber entered from a narrow passage, and finally a larger second chamber. The walls of the tomb were originally covered with Zapotec hieroglyphic writing, fragments of which still remain. These, together with three Zapotec funerary urns and a few crudely made vessels, were the only evidence of the Zapotec burial in the tomb.



A ROCK CRYSTAL  
GOBLET.

One of the extraordinary objects of the collection is a crystal goblet, about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  inches high and  $3\frac{1}{4}$  inches in diameter. It has been estimated that because of the hardness of the material and the primitive methods used in cutting and polishing, the shaping of this goblet may well represent the life work of one or two men.

Courtesy of Dr. Daniel F. R. de la Borbolla.

The explorations on Monte Albán were undertaken under the auspices of the Bureau of Monuments of the Department of Education, with the collaboration of the government of the State of Oaxaca, the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, the National University, and various public-spirited citizens, among whom was, it gives me great pleasure to say here, the late Dwight W. Morrow.

I shall now show you some slides of the tomb and some of the pieces that were found in the Mixtec burial.

In the days that followed, Dr. de la Borbolla and other members of the staff accompanying the exhibit were present to answer the many questions of the ten thousand visitors who passed through the Gallery of Flags.

It was in January 1932 that the discovery of these rare objects was made at Monte Albán. The attention of the world was immediately focused on that enigmatic hilltop, and when, a few months later, the rich contents of Tomb No. 7 were displayed in the National Museum in Mexico City, visitors from all parts of Mexico and from foreign countries made pilgrimages to view them.

The Mexican Government, with praiseworthy generosity, gave this year to thousands to whom otherwise the privilege would have been denied, the opportunity to enjoy this valuable testimony to the high development of pre-Colombian civilization, by sending the treasure to the Century of Progress at Chicago. And that still others might also see it, the collection has been exhibited in other parts of the country. After nearly three months in Chicago, it was shown for four days in St. Louis and for three weeks in New York before coming to Washington. In spite of urgent invitations from San Francisco, Dallas, Houston, New Orleans, Philadelphia, Boston, and New York (for a return visit), the treasure left Washington for Mexico to be exhibited for a week at San Antonio before leaving the United States.



Courtesy of Dr. Daniel F. R. de la Borbolla.

#### CARVED JAGUAR BONES.

It is believed that these elaborately carved jaguar bones were used by priests in auto-sacrificial rites. The original inlays of turquoise which formed the background are, however, no longer in place. The upper of these three bones has, in addition to the eagle heads at each end, the following symbols carved on it, reading from right to left: 1, Crocodile; 2, wind; 3, house; 4, lizard; 5, serpent; 6, death; 7, deer; 8, rabbit; 9, water; 10, dog; 11, monkey; 12, grass; and 13, cane.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing.

FRANKLIN ADAMS.

Mr. Adams, Counselor of the Pan American Union, retires January 1, 1934, after 25 years of service.

## A QUARTER CENTURY OF PAN AMERICAN SERVICE

BY the retirement of Mr. Franklin Adams from his position as Counselor of the Pan American Union, this institution loses on January 1, 1934, one of the most valued members of its staff, who through his wide-ranging interests, culture, resourcefulness, geniality, and wit has rendered a unique and devoted service to Pan Americanism.

Mr. Adams, a native of California, first joined the staff of the Pan American Union in 1908 and shortly afterward became chief clerk and editor of the monthly BULLETIN. Under his direction this review, instead of devoting its pages entirely to trade and official reports, enlarged its scope and became more popular in tone. Illustrations were freely used to increase the interest. The English, Spanish, and Portuguese editions of the BULLETIN replaced the single edition containing sections in the several languages. An intensive advertising campaign was carried on in all the American Republics with Mr. Adams' usual enthusiasm, resulting in many new subscriptions.

On December 1, 1919, Mr. Adams left the editor's desk for the position of counselor, the duties of which office he practically created. He had just returned from an extended trip to South America. Untiring have been his efforts to maintain the many friendships made during this and other long journeys, friendships gained through a keen understanding and sincere appreciation of Latin Americans, their history, archeology, art, and progress. In his new capacity his efforts in spreading this understanding and appreciation were again crowned with success. Through his instrumentality over 1,487 women's clubs throughout the United States have taken up the study of different phases of Latin-American culture, ably assisted in their work by colored slides, music, and other educational material lent by the Pan American Union.

Perhaps the work nearest Mr. Adams' heart, however, has been making Latin-American music better known in this country; he has been a real pioneer in this field. The sixty-eight concerts of Pan American music, given at intervals at the Union, are the outcome of his interest in the music of these countries. The growth of these concerts, over a period of nearly ten years, is truly remarkable. From an informal gathering of a few persons in the patio of the Pan



American Union to listen to the broadcasting of Latin-American selections by the Army and Navy Bands, which with the Marine Band have since formed a United Service Orchestra of 110 pieces, the concerts have become a popular feature of the social life of the capital, crowding to capacity the beautiful Hall of the Americas in the winter, or filling the esplanade and Aztec Garden when they are held out-of-doors in the spring or summer. These concerts not only are enjoyed in Washington and throughout the United States but are broadcast by short wave to Latin America. Mr. Adams has been able to acquire some interesting compositions based on indigenous music from these republics, and other modern pieces which had never been performed in this country. Thanks to his efforts, many outstanding musicians of Latin America have taken part in the concerts.

In recognition of his contributions to Pan Americanism, Mr. Adams received from the Government of Cuba the Order of Céspedes, and more recently the Chilean Government conferred on him the Orden al Mérito.

At its meeting on November 1, 1933, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union approved the following resolution expressing appreciation of his years of faithful and fruitful service:

Whereas the Counselor of the Pan American Union, Mr. Franklin Adams, will retire from active service on January 1, and

Whereas during the twenty-five years that he has been connected with the Pan American Union, Mr. Adams has contributed much to the furtherance of the purposes for which the organization was established,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union—

*Resolves* to express to Mr. Adams the deep appreciation of the Board on the occasion of his retirement from the Union.

In transmitting this resolution to Mr. Adams, Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, wrote:

I take pleasure in sending you herewith a copy of the resolution adopted by the Governing Board at the session held yesterday afternoon.

At the same time permit me to express a personal word of appreciation for the admirable services that you have rendered during the many years that you have been connected with the Pan American Union. You have made lasting contributions to the work of the Union and to the Pan American cause in general, and I am certain that the fruits of your efforts will be realized for many years to come.

Notwithstanding your approaching retirement from active service I know that you will continue your interest in the Pan American movement and in the work of the Union, and I sincerely hope that from time to time I may receive the benefit of your advice and suggestions.

I am certain that I voice the sentiment of each and every member of the Governing Board as well as of the entire staff of the Pan American Union, when I express the hope that the years to come may have much happiness in store for you.

# THE NEW PERUVIAN PAINTING

By CARLOS RAYGADA

THE traditional cultivation of the decorative arts was a distinguishing feature of the Incan and pre-Incan civilizations. These arts were developed to such a degree that their abundant products, especially ceramics and textiles, successfully bear comparison with the finest works of the ancient Egyptians; consider, among the wealth of examples extant, the remarkable textiles discovered in the most recent excavations of the necropolis at Parakas. And ancient Incan art has aesthetic reverberations in present-day Peruvian painting.

It is a far cry across the centuries. The careful observer will note a disproportionate difference between the almost legendary accomplishments of the Incas and the mediocre works of the viceregal period. The explanation is simple: The conquest marked the end of a great art, which had reached its maximum development and begun to decay; the social phenomenon resulting from the Spanish invasion created new forms of expression which, peculiar to the early years of the mingling of races, could be fixed only after the gropings natural to any nascent art.

Colonial painting was strongly influenced by its surroundings. Although those who practiced it attempted to express contemporary beauty on their canvases and to record the rich and colorful apparel and other picturesque aspects of the formation and evolution of society during the time in which a new nation was beginning to take shape, colonial painting was never Peruvian in a genuine and indigenous sense. It was, rather, an artificial foreign overlay; in other words, it was merely European painting aware of new and attractive exotic models with which to satisfy its insatiable voracity, painting transported across the Atlantic to teach its technical marvels to the Indians subdued by the conquest. New horizons were opened to local craftsmen, to whom the palette and brush were, no doubt, instruments as surprising as the first European violin was to the native players of the traditional *quena*, or Indian flute. The conquistadors thus disclosed to the astonished eyes and ears of our native artists a new world of pictorial and musical beauty, one capable of extensive production. And this happened to those who were, as far as the Spaniards were concerned, the "New World."

In this manner we, the conquered, were in turn the conquerors; in exchange for the gold of the Indies we became the masters of a good share of the more valuable and imperishable wealth of occidental

culture. Thus the Peruvian Indians added European technique to their creative ability and originated new forms of aesthetic expression. Thus a hybrid school of painting was created, and musical and architectural hybrids were developed. As Uriel García remarks in his excellent book *El nuevo Indio*: "The spiritual violin of Stradivarius, the mystic harp of the Psalms of David, were transmuted into village minstrels who, hidden in mesitzo centers, became the media of vernacular creation." In like manner, palettes and brushes, products of European civilization, came also to supply the Indian's need for expression. And such was the power of these implements that, after taking out their South American citizenship papers, they created the Peruvian art that flowered in colonial times and disappeared about the middle of the nineteenth century. This was displaced by the occidentalism of the brilliant Peruvian artists Laso, Merino, Montero, Bacaflor, Hernández, and others, but it reappeared victorious and with well-defined characteristics at the beginning of the second decade of the twentieth century. In its new expression it is known as the Neo-Peruvian School, the authentic reincarnation of the indigenous art of our forefathers. As its head is José Sabogal, vigorous and calm; the school also includes other present day Peruvian painters, whom we shall call, because of their aesthetic tastes and spiritual unrest, the Peruvian artists of the twentieth century.

But before we discuss them, let us study their predecessors, the artists of the nineteenth century, and thus obtain a better estimate of the values represented by the present school. In the first place, it should be clearly understood that there is a vast difference between "Peruvian painting," that is, Neo-Peruvian, which is the subject of this study, and the painting of the universal school done by Peruvian artists. Yet it should be recognized that Neo-Peruvian painting, as is generally true of all nationalist painting, is daily gaining universal characteristics, simply because the sentiments which it tries to emphasize are essential and fundamental, a vital part of any nation and any race. In other words, it is the cry of the earth heard in different lands, the problem, common to all nations, of the assertion of racial personality.

In the field of painting that knows no boundaries, Peru has had and still has artists of great merit and renown. They were the heirs of the creative powers of the Incas on the one hand, and of the pictorial qualities of Spanish painting on the other. Such a fusion of ancestral tendencies could not help finding expression and acquiring vigorous intensity in some few privileged temperaments.

Yet it is curious to note that, in spite of the influence of the land itself, in spite of the natural devotion of the individual to his own surroundings, his racial antecedents, and the history of his own people, the urge of aesthetic emotion should have tended to express itself





THE NATIONAL SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS, LIMA.

This school, established in 1919, has influenced the trend of Peruvian art and contributes much to the advancement of nationalist painting. The building dates from colonial times.

in artistic creativeness dealing not with Peruvian subjects, but rather with foreign motifs. This was the case with our great nineteenth century painters, who showed marked preference for subjects universal in character, considering local or national themes fit only for pastimes.

Ignacio Merino, who was born in Piura in 1817 and died in Paris in 1876, was one of the most notable artists of his time. He was the pupil of such eminent painters as Delaroche and Monvoisin; studying in a period in which romanticism was seeking its inspiration in historical paintings, he identified himself with that school. The fact that his imagination delighted in evoking scenes of European chivalry kept him from being attracted by the past of his own country. He had no special interest in either the Inca Empire or colonial times, yet when he returned to his native land he was fascinated by the charm of his surroundings. He spent much time in making numberless notes, oil sketches, and even finished pictures—never of great importance in his own estimation—of the coquettish charm of the *tapadas*, or veiled ladies, the baroque streets of Lima, and other local sights.

More Peruvian in his tastes was Francisco Laso (1823–1869), a writer and painter; a native of Lima, he was a pupil of Merino and later, in Europe, of Glayre. His masterpiece, which shows unquestionable genius, was his moving conception of Santa Rosa de Lima which, with other paintings by him and by other Peruvian



artists, hangs in the Pinacoteca Merino. The Indians whom Laso painted are greatly idealized and stylized by the natural elegance of his brush; but they prove that themes peculiar to his native land did interest this intelligent, refined, and spiritual artist.

Luis Montero, also a native of Piura (1826-1868), was another pupil of Merino; like Laso and his master, he was captivated by European aesthetics. His masterpiece, however, took its subject from Peruvian history; it represents the funeral of Atahualpa. This huge painting has, through its powerful evocation of a dramatic moment of the conquest, impressed several generations of Peruvians who

have seen it in one of the inadequate rooms of the National Museum. The moving death scene of the last of the Incas is depicted on a canvas crowded with historical detail whose realism is not entirely exempt from the theatrical.

Beside these men whose names are now part of the history of nineteenth century Peruvian painting we should place three great representative figures whose work is linked both with that period and with the present. These include the illustrious Carlos Bacaflor, at present ranked among the greatest of portrait painters, although his work, which enjoys a reputation in the artistic centers of Europe and the United States is almost entirely unknown in Peru; Daniel Hernández, winner of various medals and declared *hors concours* in Paris, at the



"VARÁYOC" (INDIAN MAYOR), BY  
JOSÉ SABOGAL.

end of the nineteenth century identified with the artistic life in Paris and Rome, a *genre* painter, landscape artist, portrait painter, and excellent teacher, who founded and directed until his death (October 1932) the National School of Fine Arts in Lima; and finally, the landscape painter Enrique Domingo Barreda, an admirable artist and one of the distinguished figures of contemporary art, whose reputation has been enhanced by the purchase of some of his works by the government of France for the Luxembourg Museum in Paris.

In this rapid survey only the principal Peruvian artists in the universal school of painting have been considered. But there were others, and we have the able expression of the effort and enthusiasm of a

group of praiseworthy artists, some notable for the excellence of the technique which they mastered, others for spiritual qualities, still others for their influence on the general culture of their period: Alberto Lynch, a painter of aristocratic women; Federico del Campo, who loved Venetian canals; Abelardo Álvarez Calderón, a painter of portraits and of fanciful subjects; Luis Astete y Concha, another portrait painter; Teófilo Castillo, painter of colonial scenes and landscapes; and Juan Lepiani, who depicted passages in our national history. Of all these, the only one still living is Alberto Lynch, at present in Europe; he has received many of those honors indicative of the degree of official esteem which an artist has attained in the great cultural centers, but his name and work are almost unknown in Peru. The same thing has happened in the case of del Campo, the painter of Venetian scenes. Álvarez Calderón, Astete, and Castillo were much more deeply rooted in their native land, especially Castillo, who was one of the first to evince any interest in Indians as individuals, in the Peruvian landscape, and in those scenes of colonial life of which he was so fond. Castillo also distinguished himself by his courageous and learned criticism, in which he stressed many points dealing with artistic nationalism, approving or discussing conditions and reputations with passionate vehemence, a fact which did not prevent him from being generous and encouraging. Yet Lepiani, who died only recently in Italy, and who had neither the artistic perception of Álvarez Calderón nor the pictorial sense of Astete, and who never displayed the intellectual dissatisfaction of Castillo, immortalized his name by enshrining it in the soul of the nation with his many historical paintings, especially his impressive scenes from the War of the Pacific, exact in every detail and not without the moving quality of the genre.

Except, then, in the isolated cases of Castillo and Lepiani who, after all, did not make important contributions to Peruvian art—the former because he did not persist long enough to achieve unity of expression, and the latter because he did no more than depict historical anecdotes conventionally drawn and of little aesthetic merit—none of this group of painters had any connection with the nationalist movement. Peruvian art, as such, owes nothing to them—a fact which does not prevent, of course, appreciation of what they accomplished in other fields.

#### PICTORIAL NATIONALISM: NEO-PERUVIAN PAINTING

If it is indeed true that Peruvianism in painting began, as we have said, with the early sketches of Merino, and continued with the contributions of Laso, it was really only at the beginning of this century that a systematic eagerness to create and sustain a vernacular



"FIESTA HUANCA", A WOOD CUT BY JOSÉ SABOGAL.

art began to take form, especially in music and in painting. It was a twinge of the nationalist conscience, an awakening to the appreciation of the beauties of our own country, taking as the main point of departure the Peruvian sierra; it emanated principally from Cuzco, Arequipa, and Cajamarca, which have given us the most outstanding values of neo-Peruvian painting.

This nationalist current now has a definite orientation and is productive; but in its first years it had the instability usual in all beginnings. And in both branches, it suffered the inevitable consequences of groping, empiricism, and improvisation. While some musicians innocently believed (and even today many still continue to think so) that musical nationalism consists in collecting folklore motifs, such as are found in popular festivals, in order to combine them later in an insipid pseudo harmony with a completely senseless accompaniment, certain "Incan" painters, as innocent as their musical brethren, devoted themselves to the most obvious mimicry of archaeological themes. They religiously copied ornamental motifs from the ceramics made by their forebears of Tahuantinsuyo and applied these copies—not without adulterating them with unconscious aesthetic irresponsibility—to their paintings. The result had no more artistic



value than did the music of their confrères. While the painters, full of vanity, exhibited "a real Nazca decoration", the musicians were playing, with ill-concealed pride, "a pure Aimara motif"—the reality and the purity deserving, of course, only the honor of doubt—both painting and music being destined at best to be cataloged in archaeological archives like documents or *huacos* (ceramics taken from ancient Indian sepulchres).

There were a few who had true vision, a real appreciation of what nationalism in music and in painting really meant. Who was the first to express it, chronologically speaking, cannot be said with any certainty, but it is possible to point out the foremost in resolution and accomplishment, the artist whose valiant and decisive suggestions were full of that vital loyalty which is so becoming in the artist of today. That was José Sabogal, born in 1888 in the Province of Cajabamba, Department of Cajamarca, in the northern mountains of Peru.

Neither the fascinating warmth and charm of Spanish color, nor the powerful magnet of the cultural traditions of Rome, could alter Sabogal's preference for Peruvian subjects. He traveled through Europe with impunity, and from Europe he took what he wanted, not what Europe imposes on the weak. With the same ease he managed to emerge unscathed from the cosmopolitan mercantilism of Buenos Aires, as he had also escaped from the allure of African landscapes. He went to Mexico and there became a friend of Diego Rivera and José Clemente Orozco, the leading proponents of the revolutionary movement of 1922. Sabogal joined the belligerent element of the art that was emerging triumphant, and experienced the upheavals of a nation which had learned how to rid itself resolutely of all borrowings in order to display what was its own with the indomitable fierceness of native pride. There is no doubt but that it was in Mexico that Sabogal caught his clearest vision of Peru. So he returned home, to his native land. There he found waiting for him sacerdotal *varáyocs* (Indian mayors), timid spinners, dignified *amautas* (spiritual leaders or teachers) and odious *gamonales* (Indian caciques or bosses), the patient and elegant llamas, with great wide-open eyes, the sinuous and silent panther, the hardy, erect cactus—in brief, the sum total of elements and motifs of his own country, which were shaking themselves free from the immutability in which the thousand-year-old stylization of the ancient ceramists had imprisoned them, to surrender to the vigorous fecundity of this re-creator of the beauties of the race.

Thus Sabogal rediscovered the Indian.

If before him other Peruvian painters and a few foreigners had become interested in the Indian as an exotic and decorative phenomenon, no one—not even Laso, with all his ability—had been able really to see him, much less to penetrate his mind and comprehend him with



so sure an understanding; no one, in our personal opinion, had made the psychological exploration which Sabogal accomplished so ably.

Since then, it has been possible to speak of a new school of Peruvian painting, because Sabogal discovered, in all its amplitude, a pictorial world whose shores had hardly been glimpsed, indicated the best route for the conquest of that practically unexplored world, and ended by determining a new technique, a distinct manner of seeing the Indian motif and transferring it to canvas or woodblock—in oil painting or xylograph.



"TWILIGHT IN NAMORA,  
CAJAMARCA",  
BY CAMILO BLAS.

Of what did these innovations consist? Simply of two interrelated contributions: the presentation of a hitherto undeveloped concept and the application of a technique *ad hoc*. The native rudeness of the Indian could not be expressed with the exquisite brush of a Watteau or with the devotion to detail of an Italian miniaturist; a new method was necessary, one uniting vigor and simplicity without altering the genuine rhythm of such motifs or attenuating their strong chromatic values. Sabogal found a technique without difficulty, but even before that he had also gained, as the basis for his nationalist standard, a special vision of the Indian, of his countryside, customs, and the other elements making up the sum total of his life, of all that which, in short, constitutes the aggregate of beings, objects, and aspects



"EVENING ON LAKE TITICACA", BY JORGE VINATEA REINOSO.

which unite to form the physiognomy of a people. Sabogal, according to his own statement, was the first to be dazzled by the exuberance of themes that his country offered.

And he felt the importance of the moment.

Once he had set to work, he included in his field of vision the vast panorama of the entire country, and succeeded soon in describing it and reflecting it so admirably that the best textbook on geography could not have done it better. "But, first of all, the Peruvianism of Sabogal's art is not due to the immensity of its scope. His Peruvianism is not merely enumerative and superficial, it is essential and penetrating. It exists not only in subject but also in intrinsic value. And the fact is that, of all the attempts made 'in trying to express ourselves', the work of Sabogal is perhaps the most successful and definitive, even taking into account what has been accomplished in literature and in music." (Jorge Basadre, *Perú: Problema y Posibilidad*, Rosay edit., Lima, 1931.)

In Sabogal's art there is a certain primitive melody which might be called his basic rhythm. But it is not the hypocritical primitiveness of the theatrical and absurd Pre-Raphaelites of the twentieth century, but a legitimate one, perfectly in harmony with the vital simplicity of his village models. It is a paradoxical modernistic primitiveness,

including a synthetic and planiform vision of values, relieved principally by the use of color, and giving only secondary importance to the classic preoccupation with line and the kindred interest in academic correctness. In other words, Ingres-like beauty is brusquely replaced by the dynamic dramatic quality of Cézanne-like synthesis. And, apart from form as such, there is a deliberate, almost primary, interest in emphasizing the essential quality of the object, the landscape, or the individual, a quality considered more important than any external value: it is the predominance of the psychological over the physical, the ever present desire to express the soul of things on canvas. It is intelligent painting, full of vital feeling, which sub-



"FLOWER SELLERS OF LIMA", BY JORGE VINATEA REINOSO.

ordinates pure virtuosity to its own needs, which are principally subjective, but without idealization. This is a very important point, for while Laso, the Peruvianist of the nineteenth century, tried to idealize his subjects, stylizing them with exquisite delicacy, Sabogal presents them in all their rude ugliness—an ugliness often full of pride and arrogance, often paradoxically beautiful—with their own crudeness, with their legitimate heaviness, with the vibrating rhythm of a tremendous calm, capable of being lightened only by the exciting sound of the sensual *huayno* or the dionysiac *kashwa*. And, finally, the diametrical difference separating the two schools may be definitively established by comparing the color feeling of each one: while Laso maintained an elegant but profoundly sad sobriety, made up of





"THRESHING", BY JULIA CODESIDO.

harmonious grays and aristocratic ivories, Sabogal, who, like every good painter, is also capable of feeling the music inherent in the infinite gamut of gray, frequently breaks out with vibrant reds and warm sunburnt earths; his raw yellows make violent purples sparkle and his lyric Veronese green shines more vividly in contrast. Laso painted with an art sweetened by the mystic delicacy of the romantic violins of the Europe of his time; Sabogal stains his canvases in his excitement over the acid stridency of the wailing horn, of that ancestral *pututo* (a musical instrument made of horns) whose notes re-echo from the Andes, to the accompaniment of the tragic howling of the centuries-old *tinya* (a primitive tambor). And thus the *tone* and the *rhythm* of that energetic and intoxicating music has its counterpart in the *color* and the *movement* of Sabogal's pictures.

The appointment of Sabogal as a professor in the National School of Fine Arts was quite extraordinary, considering the absolutely Parisian viewpoint of the director, the renowned master Daniel Hernández, who represented the purest classic tradition. It was



somewhat of a shock for the aged teacher, but his penetrating intelligence was stronger than his scholastic prejudice, and Sabogal was soon cordially sharing with that remarkable old gentleman the task of training those who aspired to a mastery of the palette.

Among such youths was Camilo Blas. He was the first to learn to "see" the way. He developed beside Sabogal without imitating him; that is, he kept his own personality and became, ten years later, the painter that he is today. A wise and penetrating observer, he knew how to find a hitherto untrodden path, and harmonized a new form—not without a certain poetic emotion—of stylizing the mountain landscape with an abnormal insight into figures, which he saw through



"EL CAMBIO DE VARA", BY FRANCISCO GONZÁLEZ GAMARRA.

In this canvas the artist has pictured the induction of a new Indian mayor.

an ironic prism, tinged with deliberation and perversity. If we look back once more at the delicate idealizations by Laso, the contrast between his work and the painting of Camilo Blas is much more striking than that offered by the Indianism of Sabogal. Laso was a lyric romantic, Sabogal is a dynamic realist, Camilo, a mischievous humorist. . . . His art may have an antecedent in the Goya-esque Pancho Fierro, a famous intuitive draftsman of the past century, who was a psychologist and even a sociologist in his own way, and who catalogued the types and customs, the vices and virtues, of the society of his time. Camilo has not tried to do anything like that, but his brush cannot help smiling perversely when describing the

interiors of native drinking places or presenting an Andine composition in which there is always a huge-headed burro, or one of those little horses all ribs, belonging unmistakably to the mountains.

But this should not be interpreted as meaning that romanticism had entirely disappeared: here is the work of the unfortunate Jorge Vinatea Reinoso, the landscape painter of golden light, polychrome lakes, and the reflection of truly enchanting evening skies. This painter from Arequipa, prolific and eager, was a true product of the National School of Fine Arts and, in his own way, a follower of the nationalistic pattern—that pattern without pattern—traced by

“MAID OF TOMAIQUI-  
CHUA”,

BY RICARDO FLÓREZ.



Sabogal. Unfortunately death coveted this young man and bore him away at the age of thirty, when he had just begun to charm us with the grace of his magical brush.

Another strong personality caught up in the Peruvianist current was Julia Codesido. She was already a finished painter when Sabogal began his nationalistic movement, but that did not prevent her from changing her style, for she quickly understood the new tendency and immediately joined the ranks of its supporters. There she sought her own path, which led her directly to mural painting, vigorous and powerful, but none the less animated with grace and harmony, and, above all, full of intelligence and a strong regional character.

Among the other painters who together gave value to the Peruvianist movement, Domingo Pantigoso is outstanding because of his chromatic euphony, as shown in beautiful decorative compositions. Pantigoso is a painter with an appreciation of local environment, who knows how to make the most of the vivid colorings to be found among the Indians.

Ricardo Flórez is also a good landscape painter, whose outstanding characteristic is the cultivation of the chromatic luminosity characteristic of French impressionism. His success is due to his sensitiveness as a colorist rather than to his perception of subjective qualities. The charm of this sensitiveness, the predominant quality in the works of Flórez, is increased by the freshness of spirit and that particular sense of purity which the rural landscape, full of peace and fragrance, contributes to painting.

Francisco González Gamarra, a prolific and hardworking artist of Cuzco, was one of the first to cultivate aboriginal motifs, although he did not belong to Sabogal's circle. His repertory shows his preference for the legendary past, where fantasy may have full sway, and for treating a great variety of types and native costume. But where, to our way of thinking, he has had true artistic success, is in his rich collection of patios, fountains, doorways, little streets, churches, interiors, and landscapes of Cuzco and other regions, all reproduced in fresh and spontaneous watercolors, and also in his excellent etchings, in which he reconstructs sumptuous Inca temples and palaces.

Felipe Cossío del Pomar is an intellectual painter, or, if you prefer, an intellectual who paints. His great variety of themes enables him to win success in quite dissimilar fields, but at the cost of an inevitable diffusion of his personality. His characteristic restlessness is also revealed in his output as a writer, which has won for him a well-deserved success. *Pintura Colonial*, *Arte y Vida de Pablo Gauguin*, and *Con los Buscadores del Camino* are three works of Cossío which, in their respective fields, combine the special merits of soundness of ideas, spiritual insight, amenity, and elegance of style. The fact that the author of this article knows his Indian paintings only from photographs prevents him from forming a judgment which would perforce be based on partial evidence.

Carlos Quíspez Asín, of Lima, began his studies in the School of Fine Arts there, finishing his education in the Academy of San Fernando in Madrid, and then going to Paris, where he wooed the muses of all the "isms" in vogue. At present, as a reaction against the empty scenographic imagism of decadent modernism, Quíspez has become a mural decorator with frank Americanist tendencies; while his attention has been focused chiefly on regional customs, he is, at the same time, a sure and accomplished portrait painter.





"CUZCO INDIANS", BY F. COSSÍO DEL POMAR.

To complete this panorama, mention should also be made of the youthful group of painters who, from different parts of the country, maintain the nationalistic fervor with increasing intensity. From Arequipa come the landscape artists Carlos Trujillo Olmedo and Casimiro Cuadros, the genre painter Manuel Alzamora, and the portrait painter Víctor Martínez Málaga. Carlos More and Víctor Valdivia Dávila, from Puno, Francisco Olazo and Manuel Figueroa Aznar from Cuzco, Macedonio de la Torre from Trujillo, and Gonzalo Meza Cuadra from Cajabamba, are all landscape painters.

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The National School of Fine Arts has played an important role in the evolution of our artistic taste. And it may be said that it has decided the trend, since it is the most influential institution of artistic culture in the entire history of national public instruction. It was founded in 1919, during the second administration of Dr. José Pardo, thanks to the decisive efforts of Enrique Barreda—a painter to whom the country also owes, in large part, the founding of the National Academy of Music—and its accomplishment has been indisputably beneficial. From its conventual halls, the former abode of nuns and prayers, have come artists who today, enrolled in the flourishing



Peruvianist movement, are blazing trails and giving distinction to national art. There Teresa Carvallo, Julia Codesido, Germán Suárez Vértiz, Ricardo Flórez, and Camilo Blas teach drawing and painting; Raúl Pro, sculpture; Dr. Guillermo Salinas Cossío, history of art; Dr. Raúl Rebagliatti, anatomy; and Héctor Velarde, architecture. The administration of the school has just been entrusted to José Sabogal; his appointment was, in the opinion of the cultured, an act of intelligence and justice on the part of the present Government.

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We have tried to describe the present state of Peruvian painting, its foremost representatives, and its most important antecedents which, while precise and exact painting, were not art, in the general sense. That explains the omission in this study of other expressions of the national aesthetic restlessness. Reference should also be made to many artists who, without being painters in the generally accepted sense of the word, cultivate the allied arts. There are more than thirty draftsmen, illustrators, poster-painters, decorators, and cartoonists of ability; among these stand out Málaga Grenet, a true master of the pencil, as adaptable in his skill in varied techniques as delicate in his genius; Reynaldo Luza, portrayer of feminine elegance, well-known in Paris and New York; César Moro, the original decadentist, who occasionally interprets creolism in an exaggerated manner, and many others of merit.

In brief, Peru should be satisfied to have an authentic national school of painting. Although the present state of its achievement is very flattering, the future offers a new world of pictorial beauty, not romantic and over-sweet, fragile and temporary, but firm, definite, profound, and imperishable.



# THE UNIVERSITY OF CHILE

## SOME NEW FEATURES OF UNIVERSITY LIFE

By ENRIQUE L. MARSHALL

*Secretary General of the University of Chile*

A THOROUGH renovation of ideas as to the obligations of the university to its students and the part which it should play in national life has, in the last three years, put emphasis on functions which, until a short time ago, were given only secondary consideration. In order to direct these new phases of university life, the Department of Student Welfare was created; a new impulse was given to the expansion of cultural and artistic activities by the establishment of a special section; and the university press was established, thus permitting a great increase in the number of scientific publications. At the same time, it was recognized that agricultural studies should be planned with more attention to recent technical advance. To satisfy this need, the Corporation acquired a farm a few miles outside Santiago, where it is at present installing its agricultural training courses. The students in the practice school will therefore be trained in an agricultural environment which will afford them an opportunity of understanding not only the technical aspects of their profession, but also the economic conditions involved in farming. The students of the Schools of Agriculture and Veterinary Science will have at their disposal more adequate facilities for experimentation and professional training than they now enjoy in the limited range heretofore available at the Normal Farm <sup>1</sup> in Santiago.

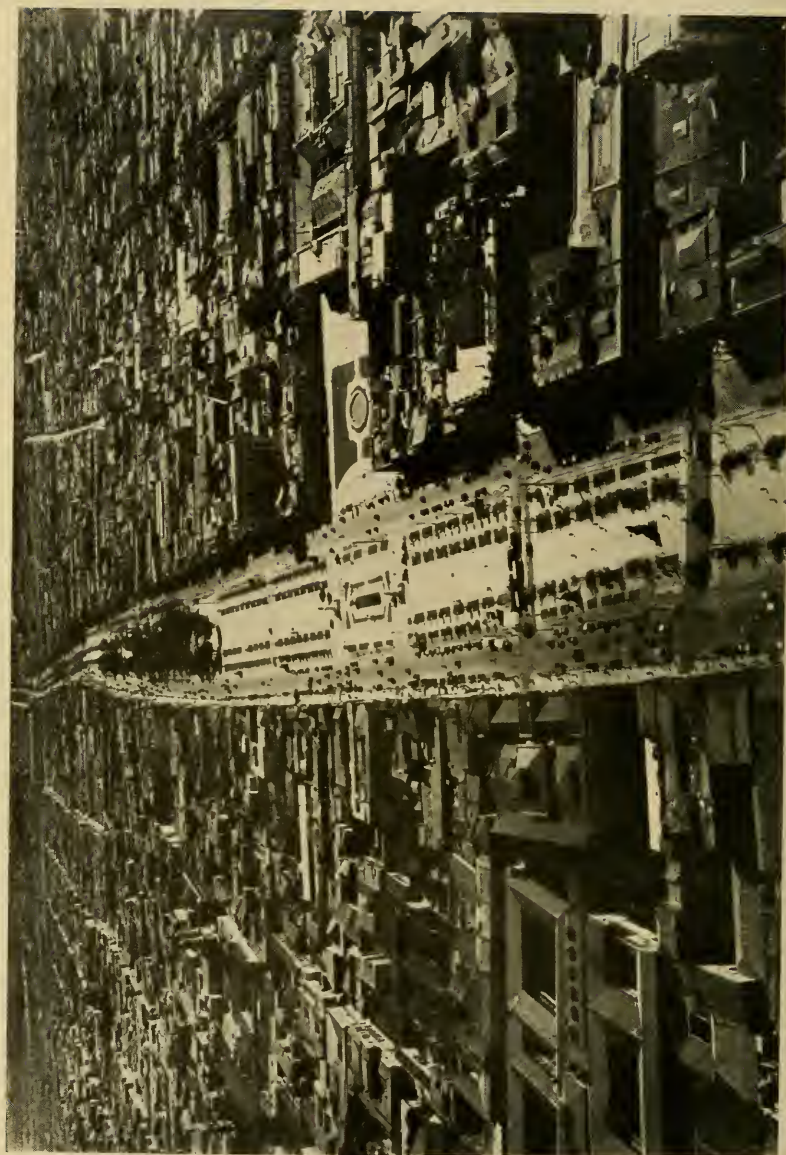
While busy with these innovations in university life, the authorities are trying to find some way of ending the friction between professors and students which has constantly recurred during the last thirty years and has been intensified since the revolution of July 1931.

So it is evident that, although the greatest problem of the university has not yet been solved, the authorities have made an effort, in spite of the great difficulties of this trying period, to broaden university life in the directions indicated. A brief summary of the aims and results of these efforts follows.

No tuition charge was made until a few years ago, and the officials considered that the university had fulfilled its mission if, through the different schools, it imparted knowledge and prepared for professional life. This idea has been completely abandoned. The university

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<sup>1</sup> A tract with about a hundred acres under cultivation situated inside the city limits.



Courtesy of "Chile."

THE AVENIDA DE LAS DELICIAS, SANTIAGO, CHILE.

Along this splendid boulevard which traverses the city for a distance of 3 miles or more are some of Santiago's finest buildings, including the National University.





THE UNIVERSITY OF CHILE, SANTIAGO.

requires a matriculation fee from its students, although it exempts a varying percentage of those of limited means who are especially gifted. On the other hand, the Department of Student Welfare gives grants of money to honor students; offers dental, medical, and surgical services free of charge or at a very low rate in either its dental clinics or the hospital connected with the university; promotes sports and athletics; subsidizes both organizations of intellectual and artistic interests and purely social ones; and helps to support several school lunchrooms. Lately it has begun the regular publication of lectures given by some of the professors in their courses; it is studying the organization of a self-help bureau for students; and it is preparing to apply the new medical service regulations, based on the principles of preventive medicine, which will go into effect in 1934.

The tremendous importance of the services of the Student Welfare Department may be better appreciated if it is realized that the larger part of the student body of the university, numbering about five thousand, comes from families of limited means, and that more than fifty percent of them are young men and women from the Provinces who have made great sacrifices to come to Santiago. The living conditions of many are far from satisfactory; as time goes on it will be necessary to face squarely the question of dormitories for students.

The university has always played a quiet but fruitful role, laying equal stress on advanced studies, scientific research, and the diffusion of culture; but until recent years it had not tried to promote the systematic extension of knowledge beyond the rather narrow limits of the regular courses. The Division of Cultural and Artistic Extension,



which carried out a full program of lectures, courses, and symphony concerts during the first semester of 1931, has succeeded in securing as lecturers the cream of the faculty, some intellectuals not connected with the university, and European professors who come annually to Buenos Aires on academic missions. Since then, however, political upheavals and student agitation have prevented the offering of another program as complete and varied, but the success obtained two years ago proved beyond question the value of the organization. The decline of the Chilean peso and the difficulty of obtaining foreign exchange have made it extremely difficult to obtain lecturers from other countries.

During October 1933 the Symphony Orchestra of the Bach Society, under the auspices of the Division of Cultural and Artistic Extension, toured southern Chile to demonstrate new musical tendencies to the Provinces.

The establishment of the university press has done much to stimulate scientific works by Chilean scholars. Ever since its foundation in 1842, the university has published regularly the *Boletín de Informaciones Administrativas* and *Los Anales*, in whose tables of contents are to be found accounts of the most important scientific research done in Chile by professors or other men of science during the last ninety years. From time to time, as its scanty resources have permitted, the university has published various works of outstanding merit.

Recently, as a consequence of the fact that the university has acquired its own press, two noteworthy projects have been formulated.

*Los Anales* has been revised; now, instead of publishing technical studies intended for specialists only, it includes in its table of contents articles or studies dealing with all kinds of subjects written to appeal to any cultured reader. Bibliographic and bio-bibliographic sections have been added, as well as one summarizing the cultural and scientific activities of the schools and other institutes or scientific bodies of which the university is composed.

The works excluded from the review are grouped according to subject and published in independent supplements; these are the inception of future annals, to be issued by the different schools. The School of Biology and Medical Sciences expects shortly to begin the publication of its own.

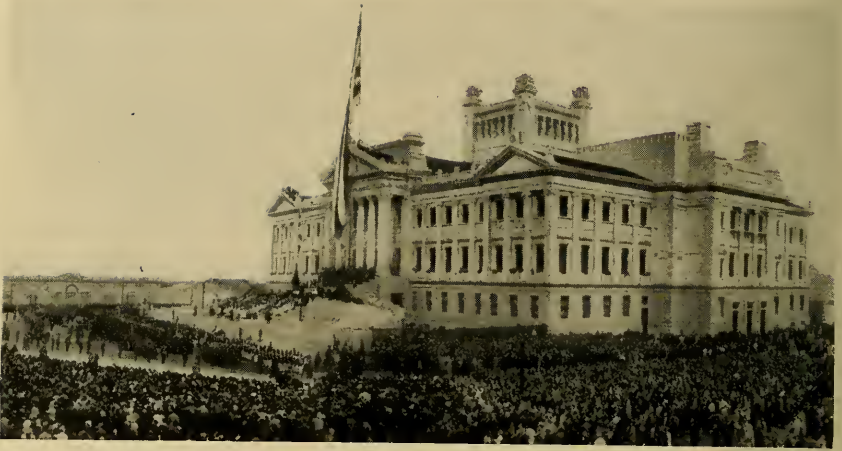
Moreover, the university publishes at its own expense every scientific work written in Chile which a committee of professors of the school teaching that subject considers worthy of such distinction. Thus books are made available which, because of their specialized character, would not readily find a publisher in countries like Chile, where the population is small and the number of readers of such works naturally limited.

It has seemed opportune to give publicity to these projects, whose complete realization still remains a goal for the future, for they prove how, in spite of political disturbances and student agitation, the professors who in their capacity as rectors or members of the university council have assumed its administration in this period of restlessness and confusion have not failed in their duty of gradually increasing its usefulness. While the debate on university reform is going on in the attempt to find the best solution of the problem whose periodical crises have for some years marred the tranquillity of academic life, the authorities are trying to strengthen definitely and dispassionately the social, cultural, and scientific activities which are the essence of the Corporation.



SANTA LUCIA HILL, SANTIAGO

## WHERE THE AMERICAS ARE



THE CAPITOL, MONTEVIDEO.

The handsome capitol will be the scene of the meeting of the Seventh International Conference of American States.



PART OF THE BUSINESS SECTION.

This air view shows a part of one of the numerous plazas as well as some of the buildings of the skyscraper type which have been erected in recent years.



## MEETING IN CONFERENCE



Courtesy of Touring Club Uruguayo.

### MONTEVIDEO FROM THE AIR.

The history of Montevideo since its founding in 1726 has been closely linked with that of the country. Today the Uruguyan capital is a modern and progressive metropolis of 658,000 inhabitants. Upper: A portion of the harbor. Through this port pass at least three-fourths of the commerce of the nation. Lower: The southwest section of the city. Extending upward from the center foreground is the wide Avenida Agraciada, and in the center the capitol.



WHERE THE AMERICAS ARE



MONUMENT TO GENERAL JOSÉ ARTIGAS.

The hero of the nation's struggle for liberty, which was achieved in 1825, is honored by a heroic monument in Plaza Independencia.

## MEETING IN CONFERENCE



TWO OF MONTEVIDEO'S HOTELS.

Adjoining Montevideo and connected with it by a splendid waterfront driveway, the Rambla Wilson, are several beautiful seaside resorts of great popularity during the summer months. Upper: The Parque Hotel, municipally owned and operated, at Ramírez Beach. Lower: The Hotel Carrasco on the beach of the same name.

## WHERE THE AMERICAS ARE



SHEEP AT A SLAUGHTER HOUSE IN MONTEVIDEO.

Uruguay is essentially a pastoral country, sheep and their products being the chief exports.



A MEAT-PACKING PLANT NEAR MONTEVIDEO.

The principal industries of Uruguay are those related to livestock. Meats and extracts alone figured in the exports of 1932 to the extent of more than 18,000,000 pesos.



## MEETING IN CONFERENCE



A ROAD IN URUGUAY.

Good roads leading from the capital make other sections of the country easily accessible by automobile.



DOCKS AT MONTEVIDEO.

More than thirty millions of dollars have been expended in late years to improve the port and facilitate the handling of cargo.





Courtesy of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau.

CARLOS J. FINLAY.

December 3, 1933, marks the first centenary of the birth of the eminent Cuban physician and scientist to whom the world is indebted for the correct theory of the transmission of yellow fever.

# FINLAY, SANITARY PIONEER AND BENEFACTOR OF MANKIND

DECEMBER 3, 1833—AUGUST 20, 1915

By ARÍSTIDES A. MOLL, Ph.D.

*Scientific Editor, Pan American Sanitary Bureau*

NO more typical Cuban city may be found than the old Puerto Príncipe, now called Camagüey, set in a land of plenty with green canefields, fat cattle, and virgin forests. It has produced men of note, such as the two most famous Agramontes, Ignacio, the hero, and Arístides, the scientist. The same city prides itself on being also the place where Juan Carlos<sup>1</sup> Finlay Barrés was born on a day, December 3, 1833, writ large in the annals of American medicine. As the surnames suggest, through his veins ran the same two bloods, Scotch and French, blended in another prominent son of the West Indies, no less a person than Alexander Hamilton, and in many another great American. Guiteras, the loyal disciple from whose sketch so many of these data are borrowed, has stressed the happy combination of the best qualities of the two races in the most noted of Cuban investigators: the persistence, common sense, logical mind, and fondness for abstractions of Hunter's countrymen, and the lively imagination, pleasing ways and politeness of Pasteur's fellow citizens, plus that longing for glory which, ludicrous in mediocrities, lends new brilliance to real greatness. This fails to take into account certain virtues held in common by both nationalities, among them an adventurous spirit and inquiring bent, and some gifts often shown by men of mark everywhere: unselfishness, passion for study, devotion to mankind, high ideals, kindness, and the religion of duty.

In gloomy days indeed Finlay came into this world. A few years before, one of the most frightful scourges of mankind, Asiatic cholera, had made its appearance first in Europe and then in America, without sparing the West Indies in its career of desolation. A pandemic of influenza marched in its wake.

However, the plague from the Ganges remained a mere bird of passage. On the other hand, the New World tropics had long nursed another disease, equally disastrous. One country after another and generation after generation had seen yellow fever make short work of

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<sup>1</sup> After a certain period in his life his signature always appears as Carlos Finlay, later changed to Carlos J. Finlay, when his son, the present Secretary of Health of Cuba, began to practice medicine.

both distance and people. We may accept either Finlay's interpretation that the dread *vómito negro*, as Spaniards used to call the disease, had been present in America since before the discovery, or Carter's correction dating its probable occurrence from not earlier than the eighteenth century and, with a sort of poetical justice, connecting it with the abominable slave trade (smallpox was also introduced into Mexico in Cortés' time by a negro servant). The fact is that practically every land on the western continent saw this menace hovering over its head. Both the Pacific and the Atlantic coasts down to Chile and Argentina felt its grim pressure; this pestilence climbed not only as high as São Paulo, but eventually the very sides of the Andes. In Haiti it fed on the French troops and incidentally helped to bring about freedom. In the United States, where it first appeared in 1693, it became the terror of the South until the beginning of the twentieth century, reaching on the North as far as Boston and on the West the Mississippi Valley and beyond. In Philadelphia in the oft-described 1793 epidemic and in Galveston in 1867 it decimated the population, while in Nuevo Laredo in Mexico (1903) it attacked half of the people; in Rio de Janeiro it added thousands and thousands to the death rolls; in New Orleans it took 8,000 lives in 1853, and a single epidemic, that of 1877-78, left behind 16,000, dead and 58,000 convalescents, the cost to the country exceeding \$100,000,000.

Charles O'Malley in Lever's popular novel was told by Major Monson, "What with the seductions of the coffee plantations, the sugarcane, the monsoons, the brown skins, the rainy season and the yellow fever, most of us settled there. It is very hard to leave the West Indies." Strangely enough, yellow fever may have been the best defense of the Spanish possessions in the New World, as is proved by the results of British expeditions of 1741 against Cartagena and of 1762 against Havana.

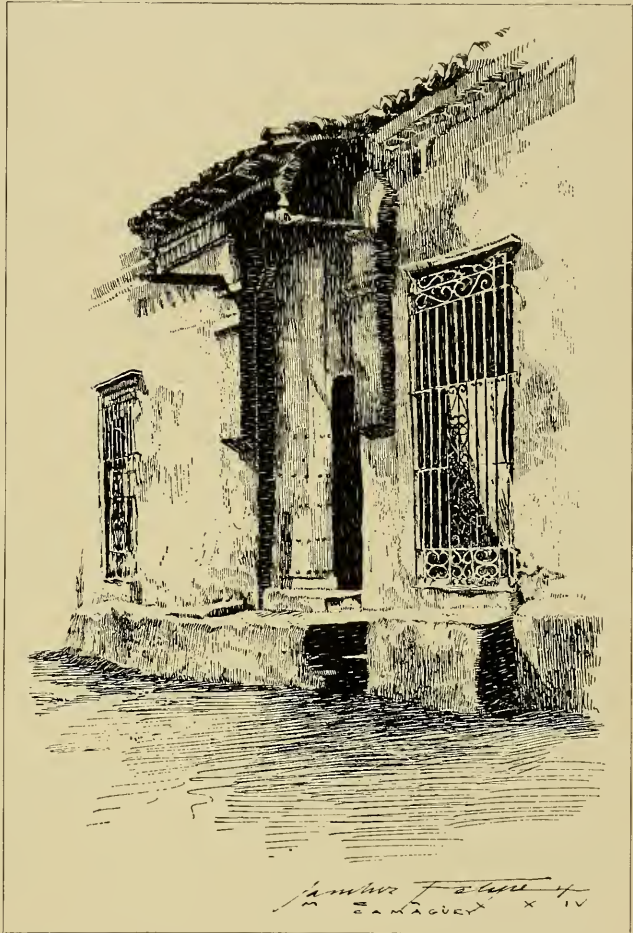
Neither could Europe keep its ports altogether free from the disease which, boring its way inland into Spain, caused about 200,000 deaths in half a century and 20,000 in Barcelona in 1822-24. With a death rate varying from 15 to 85 percent, yellow fever was the most serious problem facing the builders of the Panama Canal. When Aspinwall, the contractor for the first railroad, was asked how many lives the work had cost, he answered, "One man for each tie, practically all from yellow fever", and of the 86,000 employees of the French company, 52,000 suffered from black vomit and 22,000 died from this disease or malaria. In Havana yellow fever had never been quite extinct for 130 years until 1900, destroying 36,000 persons from 1853 to 1900, including 12,000 persons in the one decade 1870 to 1879. It was the specter whose ugly head rose threateningly before the American troops on the very morn of their victory in 1898, even prostrating one third of the Governor General's staff. Against this plague neither medicine nor empiricism had so far found either remedy or palliation.



Finlay the West Indian, born one hundred years ago, in the very year when Chile and Mexico reorganized their medical schools; when Unanue, one of the fathers of American medicine, died unaware that he left behind such a worthy successor; when Beaumont carried out his classical experiments on gastric digestion and Charles Darwin was in South America laying the foundations for his epoch-making work; that Cuban was, with genial intuition, to find the solution of the

A HOUSE IN CAMAGÜEY, CUBA.

This is typical of the colonial houses of the natal city of Carlos J. Finlay. The house where he was born stood on the plaza named for the American journalist Charles A. Dana, a Cuban sympathizer and friend of Martí.



perplexing riddle. Just two centuries before, the creator of industrial medicine had been born; three centuries before, the first necropsy in the New World had been performed (on a double monster) in Santo Domingo.

It is always interesting to stop to consider the training of men of genius. In Finlay's childhood, an aunt came from Edinburgh to teach him his letters; when eleven, the boy was sent to Havre. There



he remained until 1846, when a nervous trouble compelled his return home and left in his speech traces never to disappear. In 1848 a new trip for study was made to Europe, ending, after visits to England and Germany, with enrollment in a Rouen school until 1851. Then another disease, this time typhoid, forced him again to go back to Cuba. The next stopping place was to be Philadelphia, where he graduated from the Jefferson Medical College in 1855. The school was already famous as the *alma mater* of Sims, the surgeon, Brown-Sequard, the endocrinologist, and the two Mitchells, both Finlay's teachers: John Kearsley, among the first in sponsoring the theory of the microbic origin of disease, and his son S. Weir, who reached fame both as a neurologist and as a writer of fiction.

The Finlay family seems to have always had a weak spot for travel and roaming. After two journeys to Lima the newly fledged practitioner finally settled in Havana. Here he finally registered his diploma in 1857, and with the exception of a temporary change to Matanzas and a few short excursions abroad, including his memorable appearance in Washington in 1881, here he stayed, making his home and practicing his profession with some leaning to ophthalmology.

Ganivet, the Spanish writer, has said that what matters is to keep the fire burning. In Finlay's mind live coals were never missing. The questions to the fore in his times found him neither indifferent nor deaf, as shown by the bibliography of his works so meritoriously got up by Dr. J. Leroy. There we find noted his discussions of the Cuban climate, acclimatization of Europeans, communicability of tuberculosis, and at a later date, his excursions into philology and mathematics, his thoughts on cosmogony, and finally his effective advice on the prevention of tetanus neonatorum. The onsets of cholera in 1865-68 had served to bring into the open his progressiveness, for he explained the water-borne character of the disease and even in 1865 spoke of pre-existing germs.

In 1898, when the epic struggle for Cuban freedom entered its last phase, the aged patriot promptly offered his services, and yielding to his urgent requests, an old friend, Dr. Sternberg, at the time Surgeon General of the United States Army, assigned him to duty with the American troops besieging Santiago.

All these enterprises are, however, mere asides. Toward the latter part of 1858, when barely 25, and not long out of college, Finlay tackled what was to become his life work, to the benefit of the whole world: the study of yellow fever. He first undertook a research into the alkalinity of the air at Havana, with the naturally disappointing results set forth in his papers of 1865, 1872, 1873, and 1879. In this latter year an American commission created to investigate the cause of yellow fever reached Cuba. It may be guessed that one of the very first to offer his cooperation was the native physician who had

been battling for several years with the same problem. The commission had finally to confess defeat. Its searching analysis of the various prevailing theories as to the cause of the disease may perhaps have helped to lead Finlay into new pathways. It also contributed to his suspecting the mosquito, because of his having read in van Tieghem's textbook on botany a reference to the role of the barberry shrub in conveying the fungus causing wheat rust. This radical change in his ideas soon found expression in the declarations before the 1881 Washington conference as to the spread of yellow fever: ". . . three conditions are necessary . . . : 1, the presence of a previous case within certain limits of time; 2, the presence of a person apt to contract the disease; 3, the presence of an agent entirely independent of both the disease and the patient, in order to convey the disease to a healthy individual." In a distant part of the world that very year another physician was explaining how to obtain pure cultures of pathogenic organisms.

Typical of the man are the modesty and simplicity surrounding this momentous statement. In 1882, the year when Koch discovered the tubercle bacillus, Finlay astonished the Havana Academy of Medical, Physical, and Natural Sciences with a specific indictment of the mosquito, his Scotch caution showing in the insertion of the word "hypothetically". The paper was placed on the table, with no discussion, those present probably deeming it the work of a crank. Here begins the most glorious period of our hero's life: two decades in which, without allowing himself to be discouraged by the half-veiled scorn or jeers of his contemporaries, he held aloft the doctrine the final proof of which had to wait until the occurrence of an historical conflict.

No comparison may be made with men such as Oliver Wendell Holmes or Cober or Cortezo or King who, perhaps through having too many irons in the fire, after putting forth novel conceptions such as those of the contagiousness of puerperal fever and the role of lice in typhus and of the mosquito in malaria, left to others the task of continuing the work. A parallel might more properly be indulged in with Auenbrugger, whose invention of percussion was rescued from oblivion by Corvisart 37 years afterward; with Mendel, whose discovery of hereditary traits found no recognition until more than three decades later, when restated by De Vries; and to a lesser extent with Servet, whose account of the circulation of the blood (1553) remained buried for several centuries in a theological treatise, Harvey in the meantime (1628) demonstrating independently and forever its true nature.

It is to be regretted that Finlay, to a great extent because of unfavorable times and environment, should not have been able to carry to its logical conclusion the work he had so clearly sketched. A great

deal of what others did later he had already tried from the very start, including experimental bites of mosquitoes, even on himself, and also serotherapy.

It is a pity to have to touch on the fact on this occasion, but how ignore it? Attempts have been made to detract from Finlay's glory by bringing into the picture the names of those who either alluded before him to mosquitoes in connection with yellow fever or afterward so completely verified his theory. (Rush in 1793 attributed yellow fever to miasmas from swamps, neglected ditches, etc., and the Philadelphia Academy of Medicine in 1797 called the Governor's attention to the subject. The abundance of mosquitoes in yellow fever years had been noticed by Rush himself in 1797; by Vaughan in Wilmington in 1802; by Crawford in 1805; by Wightman in 1833 in St. Augustine; and in 1853 by Wood in Centerville, Beyrenheydt in Biloxi, Miss., Dowler in New Orleans, and Barton in Clinton, La. Blair in British Guiana [1852] stated that the mode of spread of yellow fever suggested insect life, and Greenville Dowell in 1876 reported that the cause was animalicular or fungotic or of the same nature as the Egyptian locusts, stressing the similar effect of heat and cold on yellow fever and mosquitoes and gnats.) It is a fact that Nott had connected (1848) the mosquito and the "Siamese disease", but also speaking of probable insect or animalicule origin, and his indefinite general charges cover various other conditions, including cholera. Beauperthuy, another alleged pioneer (1853), while more concrete, follows a system resembling Nott's, and even though referring to a mosquito with striped legs—it may not even be the *Aedes aegypti*—it is to exonerate it, and so far is he from understanding the true role of the insect that he makes it go to the swamps in search of the infection.

Coming now to those who, treading in Finlay's steps, gained deserved credit, their generous acknowledgment of his priority has long been on record:

W. Reed, J. Carroll, A. Agramonte, and J. W. Lazear, Preliminary Note, 1900; "Having failed to isolate *B. icteroides* either from the blood during life or from the blood and organs of cadavers, two courses of procedure in our further investigations appeared to be deserving of attention, viz., first, a careful study of the intestinal flora in yellow fever ... or, secondly, to give our attention to the theory of the propagation of yellow fever by means of the mosquito—a theory first advanced and ingeniously discussed by Dr. Carlos Finlay, of Havana, in 1881. We were influenced to take up the second line of investigation by reason of the well-known facts connected with the epidemiology of this disease, and of course by the brilliant work of Ross and the Italian observers in connection with the theory of the propagation of malaria by the mosquito. We were also much impressed by the valuable observa-



tions made at Orwood and Taylor, Miss., during the year 1898, by Surg. Henry R. Carter, United States Marine Hospital Service."

*Maj. Walter Reed*, Address, 1901: "To Dr. Carlos J. Finlay, of Havana, must be given, however, full credit for the theory of the propagation of yellow fever by means of the mosquito, which he proposed in a paper read before the Royal Academy in that city at its session on the 14th day of August 1881. From that date to the present time, Finlay has made a number of valuable contributions to the origin and mode of transmission and the prevention of yellow fever."

*Maj. V. Havard*, surgeon, United States Army, chief surgeon, Havana: Report of February 8, 1901: "The announcement long ago

THE DEPARTMENT OF  
HEALTH AND CHARITY,  
HABANA.

Occupying the center of the patio is a bust of Finlay, the benefactor of mankind, who for 20 years fought to convince the world that yellow fever is transmitted by the bite of a mosquito.



made by Dr. Carlos Finlay, of Havana, that mosquitoes were the agents of transmission in yellow fever has been verified and scientifically demonstrated by Maj. Walter Reed, surgeon, United States Army, and his colleagues, in the most conclusive manner."

*Maj. W. C. Gorgas*, surgeon, chief sanitary officer, Havana, report of March 29, 1902, to Brig. Gen. L. Wood: "The Army Board of which Major Reed was President, having demonstrated in 1900 the mosquito theory of Dr. Finlay. . ."

*Maj. W. C. Gorgas*, surgeon, chief sanitary officer, report of July 12, 1902, to Brig. Gen. L. Wood: "They took up the theory advanced by Dr. Carlos Finlay, of Havana, in the year 1880 (*sic*), that the *Stegomyia* mosquito was the sole means of the transmission of yellow



fever. Dr. Finlay had maintained this theory for some 20 years, and had done considerable experimental work in this direction."

Who then could deny the paternity of the idea? Who dispute the credit, if not denied, at least minimized, when the very enormity of the success amazed the former adversaries or unbelievers? Among them we find some of the very men who did not hesitate in assigning to Manson the lion's share in the remarkable determination by Ross of the role of the mosquito in malaria. Had the 1900 commission confirmed, not Finlay's doctrine but the other subject investigated, namely, Sanarelli's assertions, would any one attribute to its members the glory of having discovered the yellow fever bacillus? Had the theory turned out to be wrong, would any ownership have been claimed by those verifying it at the last minute and as a final resource? Has Columbus's fame suffered from having a storm cast the Vikings ahead of him on the American mainland; from having most decided misconceptions as to his discovery, and having only on his third trip, almost as if by chance, landed on the *tierra firme* which was to bear an adventurer's name?

So certain did Finlay feel that the commission was only going to verify his theory that he put into their hands all his data and notes. From his own laboratory came the eggs used by the commission in hatching the mosquitoes for its experiments, and these, by a strange coincidence, took place in Los Quemados, the hamlet where Finlay himself had carried out his original studies 20 years before.

Let those doubting that the work done after Finlay was mainly confirmation and amplification—most brilliant indeed—recall that Ross, the Finlay of malaria, after preparing for his task and having at his disposal Manson's advice and Laveran's findings which permitted him to look for definite organisms in the body of the mosquito, spent 3 long years before being able to utter the joyful eureka of the scientist who has reached the goal. (Agramonte has told us how, the first experiments of the commission proving a total failure, the theory was going to be discredited again; then Carroll fell sick unexpectedly on August 30, 1900. The same insect was used to infect the next Army volunteer. By another trick of fate, the decisive experiments occurred during the absence of the chief of the commission, in the United States.)

Both fairness and candor compel one to add that the masterly clear-cut report of the 1900 Commission proved the decisive factor in bringing about general acceptance, so far lacking, of the Finlay doctrine, especially after its further confirmation by the commissions sent by the Pasteur Institute to Rio (1901) the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine to Pará (1901), and the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service to Veracruz (1902-03), and by such workers as Guiteras in Havana and Ribas in São Paulo. The 1900 Com-

mission carried out its work with mosquitoes hatched from the eggs furnished by Finlay, following his methods of experimentation *in vivo*, but improving on them by taking into consideration Carter's observations as to the length of time separating primary (infecting) and secondary cases of yellow fever. In addition to other volunteers, two members of the Commission offered themselves to the bites of mosquitoes. Of 11 nonimmune persons, bitten by contaminated mosquitoes, the first 9 showed no signs of disease, while the two volunteers (one of them a member of the Commission, Dr. Carroll) bitten subsequently (Aug. 27 and 31), developed the disease. Carroll's infection was brought about by a mosquito which had been fed on 4 cases (2 severe and 2 mild) of yellow fever, and on 1 of the severe cases just 12 days previously. The other patient was bitten by four contaminated mosquitoes, one of them the one which had infected Carroll. Of the 9 negative cases 6 were bitten by mosquitoes feeding on patients from the fifth to the seventh day of the disease, and in the remaining 3 the interval between contamination and biting the volunteer was only from 2 to 6 days. From the work of the Commission the following definite data emerged: That yellow fever cannot be transmitted by contact or association either with persons or articles infected, that insofar as then known, the disease is solely transmitted by the mosquito now called *Aedes aegypti* (other potential vectors were discovered afterwards) which must have bitten a yellow fever patient in the first 3 days of the disease, that it takes the virus about 10 days to develop in the mosquito, and that typical yellow fever develops in nonimmune persons on the fourth or fifth day after being bitten by infected mosquitoes. The campaign against yellow fever was thereafter placed on a solid basis, thus furnishing one of the happiest instances of international cooperation in a field of utmost importance to mankind.

If Finlay himself could not complete his task, the blame must be largely assigned to inadequate resources and unfavorable environment, and also, even disregarding the question of official support, to the lack of two most precious weapons available to the 1900 Commission: a knowledge of metoxeny (the change of host of certain parasites discovered by Abilgaard in 1790 and extended by Küchenmeister in 1851) and of Carter's extrinsic incubation period theory (1898) already observed in West Africa by Ferguson in 1839 and then neglected. The latter fact may have been overlooked by Finlay through his living in a country where yellow fever was endemic and not merely epidemic. These two findings supplemented his own, suggesting the best time to get the patient's blood and to make a mosquito bite with more probabilities of securing an infection. It was not Moses alone who, after leading his people to the Promised Land, could not set foot in it.



THE FINLAY INSTITUTE IN HAVANA.

The Finlay laboratory, under the direction of the Department of Health and Charity, is devoted to research and instruction in public health.

Finlay felt so sure of his facts that he was aiming at preventive inoculation rather than further verification, and in 1900 his series already included 102 cases. His experimental failures derived at least partly from his chivalry. After having promised his volunteers that the inoculations would be essentially harmless, he could not bring himself to try more drastic methods. (It is not so well known that the first experimental inoculations in yellow fever were made in Philadelphia in 1802 by a medical student, Stubbins Firth, on himself and on animals.)

No matter from what angle the subject is studied, the fact remains that Finlay's views proved true; that his pioneer direct experiments, beautifully planned, failed only in details (had he only been able to exchange a few words with Carter in those days!); that the insect he



singled out was the vector of yellow fever; that the antimosquito work so masterfully put into execution by Gorgas had been anticipated by him; that he was the first to point out a specific mosquito, among hundreds, as the carrier of a specific disease, thus becoming, with Manson, the pioneer in the significant conception which rounded out Pasteur's microbic doctrine with the entomologic factor, and redeemed for civilization areas long the prey of disease and death. How truly could Gorgas say in 1915, "No country owes a greater debt of gratitude to Dr. Finlay than does the United States. Dr. Finlay was the first explorer in the field of research relating to the transmission of yellow fever. \* \* \* The United States would have lost thousands of its citizens and hundreds of millions in wealth during the past 20 years if Havana continued as a focus of yellow fever. It was Dr. Finlay's brilliant and logical reasoning that first suggested that the *stegomyia* mosquito was the transmitter."

It was a Baltimore physician, Dr. John Ruhräh, who suggested in 1928 that American physicians should see to having Finlay's birth-place marked with a suitable memorial tablet.

It seems impossible to imagine the success of the 1900 yellow fever commission but on the basis of the Finlay doctrine. It is easy to conceive Finlay's vindication had an open-minded governor, when faced by an epidemic, made the decision to try a campaign against mosquitoes. Those fond of dilating on the "ifs" of history might do worse than speculate on the fact that had Finlay's ideas found acceptance when first advanced, Spain might have been able to keep Cuba and Puerto Rico, and the French had a fair chance to build the Panama Canal.

No man is a prophet in his own country, we are told. Finlay belied this saying, and national and foreign honors brightened his old age: he was chief of the public health service of his native country; president of the American Public Health Association; honorary doctor of two Philadelphia medical schools; an officer in the Legion of Honor; recipient of the Mary Kingsley medal of the Liverpool school of tropical medicine, and, last but not least, of the generous tribute of American republics, and finally, there was the posthumous naming after him of institutes, laboratories, orders, and even a subgenus of mosquitoes. These honors reached a climax in the resolution of the Fourth Pan American Medical Congress in Dallas, in 1932, declaring Finlay's birthday the day of American medicine.

The Sixth International Conference of American States, held in Habana in 1928, placed itself on record as follows: "Whereas Dr. Carlos J. Finlay, of Habana, was the first to announce, supported with experimental evidence, the scientific doctrine of the transmission of disease from man to man through an intermediary agent, thus laying the foundation for the prophylaxis of yellow fever; therefore, it is

agreed that his discovery be acknowledged and the credit he deserves for that epochal achievement be proclaimed, as a tribute of admiration from this conference."

There are men whose disappearance is remembered by their fellow creatures after 1, 5, 10 years; some are still recalled after 50 years; a select group demand centennials, and small indeed is the number of those allowed millennials. I feel no hesitation in stating that, ten centuries from now, the American nations will still render full homage to Finlay if they know how to commemorate, together with their heroes and poets, their scientists, — in other words, all their sons who best served them. These are sad days for celebrations. A troubled humanity, pressed by the cares of the moment, can barely stop to glance at the past. In the medical field alone, the anniversaries of Koch and Ramazzini in Europe, and of Unanue and now of Finlay in America, are instances to the point. (Later information impels the writer to modify this statement considerably, as meetings in honor of Finlay will be held by the medical profession in the capitals of most American countries, including Washington, D.C., as well as in Madrid and Paris. The Government of Colombia is having his bust placed in its National Health Department building, and the city of Paris is going to name one of her streets after him.)

Bright indeed Finlay's glory; it is, however, all inclusive, as it embraces equally his forerunners, contemporaries, and successors in the work: first of all Beauperthuy, who, while studying the treatment of leprosy, died in the Demerara penitentiary; Delgado, the ideal collaborator; Lazear who, still a young man, paid with his life for the stupendous victory; Carroll, who also contracted the disease; Reed, whose achievement yields only to Finlay's; Agramonte; and with them Guiteras, the faithful follower with his acute mind and pleasant style; the members of the subsequent European and American Commissions; Carter, grand old man of the fight against mosquito-borne diseases; Utiguanssú, who, without having heard of Finlay, expressed similar ideas shortly afterwards; and the whole legion who put to such practical use Finlay's principles: Gorgas, the leader of successful mass sanitation; the two Brazilians Ribas and Cruz; the Mexican Liceaga; and all those still tirelessly pushing the campaign which will eventually rid the world of one of its most dreadful scourges.

A pathfinder and a thinker, decipherer of vast problems, opening new routes in both medicine and public health, Finlay stands out for his perseverance, his faith and his goodness. Great among the great, Guiteras called him; great indeed for his courage, his foresight, his equanimity, and his modesty, and even for the attacks of those critics who tried to tear away some of his deathless laurels, as green now as ever.

# MAKING A TEXTILE COLLECTION

By LILLY DE JONGH OSBORNE

*Member of the Society of Geography and History of Guatemala and Corresponding Member of the Academy of Fine Arts of San Fernando, Madrid*

*Mrs. Osborne's collection of Guatemalan textiles will be on view for two months beginning December 12 at the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. It will be shown in conjunction with an exhibition of Maya archaeology, especially of the results of the three years' work of the Eldridge R. Johnson Middle American Expedition excavating at Piedras Negras, Guatemala. It is hoped to describe these monumental sculptures in the January issue of the Bulletin.—EDITOR.*

TWENTY years ago I started my textile collection with the idea of having it contain as many as possible of the various textiles worn by the Indians in Guatemala. Little did I dream that the undertaking would be so difficult or so much fun, or that I should learn so much in my search for more elusive specimens. It has not been an easy matter. Every Indian village has its own distinctive costume for men, for women, and for children, while different social levels also are indicated by different clothes; often a very slight deviation in color or design indicates the borderline between one tribe and another.

There are supposedly twenty-two different languages and dialects spoken in the Republic of Guatemala, very few of the Indians speaking *Castilla* as they call the official Spanish language. Most of the Indians live in remote villages in the high mountain ranges, where trails are the only roads; they are slow to take strangers into their confidence, and do everything possible to hide from intruders their well-preserved rites and ceremonies and even their methods of living and dressing. It is amazing how picturesque and strange are some of their customs, many of which antedate the coming of the white man to America. The making of my collection has brought me into contact with the wearers of many of my choice costumes. The collection, though large, is far from complete, and as I go along gathering material for it, I realize how little is really known of what we call the Guatemalan Indian of today, and how difficult it is to learn more.

The Indians live according to traditions which have been handed down for generations. Their needs are simple: a few tortillas, frijoles, and black coffee (the staple articles of diet), a thatch-roofed hut—clinging precariously to a mountainside, hidden in the forest, or on the outskirts of a larger village—and a small patch of ground for planting corn will make an Indian quite happy and contented. Their bright and picturesque clothing makes a colorful spot on the landscape, and as one gets better acquainted with them, individuals

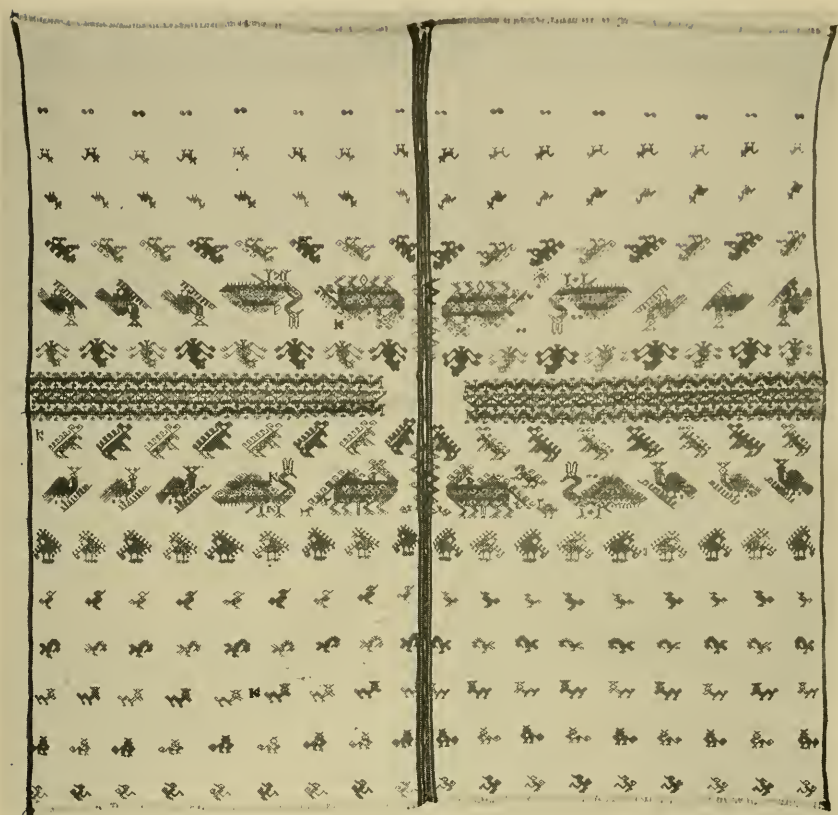


stand out clearly and a few of their traditions may be learned. Marriage rites full of poetry, funeral ceremonies unknown to the outside world, even the traditions of their daily occupations of weaving and planting, all have a charm hard to resist, and may finally be learned by a friendly individual who persists in being a human question mark; once the Indian has gained confidence in the person trying to be friendly, he may overlook the incomprehensible desire to obtain clothes not from one tribe alone, which would be in keeping with tradition, but from every tribe. All this makes the chase for textiles very exciting as well as productive of the knowledge of humanity as represented by the Guatemalan Indian of the present.

I began by buying a few pieces from the Indians near Guatemala City, who think more of money than of pride; usually the Indians weave only what is necessary for their own immediate needs, and such articles are not for sale. Some villages have a country-wide reputation for trade pieces, but these are not what a collector dreams of.

When I bought a large *huipil* (the blouse of the women's costume) woven with a white background and with large red and purple beasts strutting across the surface, I felt as if my collection was really under way. The purple cotton is rare, for the color comes from a mollusk found on the coasts of Costa Rica and Nicaragua, and the material has to be dyed with a substance taken when the moon is full, as at other times it is of inferior quality. As the purple cotton is therefore very expensive, it is used only on marriage *huipiles* or veils, or other special garments. This particular *huipil* belonged to a woman from San Pedro Sacatepéquez; she had labored on it for months, making enticing monkeys scratching their backs in such a natural way as to make one feel quite itchy, beautiful proud hens carefully concealing small ones under their wings, and wee ducks looking somewhat flustered at having one more foot than is usually their lot. It really is one of the showpieces of my collection. It was made to be worn with a skirt section tightly wound around the waist, but the skirt, of blue and white cloth, with a woolly black and white belt to hold the costume together, I did not acquire until long afterward.

My next important acquisition was a lovely prayer veil, the kind worn for attending church and major festivals and also, in this same tribe, to be married in. It is not a veil at all, as we understand the word, but a huge *huipil* covered with a great many antediluvian animals in red and purple. It took me years to get it from an old woman whose daughter, after coming to town to work, decided in favor of modern clothes and abandoned her tribal ones, just as she had abandoned tribal customs on leaving home. The old woman finally allowed me to buy the prayer *huipil* from her, with the strict injunction not to let it go out of my particular tribe, a promise most readily given, as you may well imagine. This *huipil* had last been used



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

#### A HUIPIL FROM SAN PEDRO SACATEPÉQUEZ.

Various birds and animals, in red and purple, are arrayed across a white background.

on All Saints and All Souls Days, when the dear old soul had gone to the cemetery with tall candles which she and her friends watched with prayer all night, while the men of the tribe slept out in the public square.

We grew well acquainted in the months which it took to bargain for this *huipil*. She would sit on my doorstep and tell me about her children and their refusal to follow tribal laws; her daughters were indolent and lazy, preferring to buy cheap bright materials from the stores rather than to weave their own clothes; they even thought nothing of marrying men from other villages, although such marriages made them outcasts from their own. We grew so well acquainted that she even promised to let me have her loom when she died and followed her ancestors to the grave. This loom, worn and old, had served her since childhood, but her daughter had no more use for it. It was made out of a few sticks well chosen for their particular



AN INDIAN WEAVER.

The Guatemalan artist Humberto Garavito portrays a weaver using a small hand loom.

purpose, and on it she did most beautiful work, weaving the designs taught her by her mother who, in turn, had learned them from hers. She had spent many hours of her life sitting on a clean mat with the loom suspended from the rafters of her hut, the other end of the warp fastened around her waist, and weaving clothes for herself, her husband, and her family with the cotton she had spun from the cotton pods growing on a nearby tree. When I look at my loom, I always think of María, whose gentle spirit seems to hover over it, trying to tell me how much she regretted never being able to finish the piece started on it.

The main street in Mixco is lavishly decorated, the side streets are cut off with branches, pine boughs are on the ground. A procession of Indian women advances along it on their way to church, to have an infant of their tribe baptized. The godmother, in her best clothes, has a child tied on her back; the baby wears a cap which I simply must have. It is too good to be true, having choice designs worked on a red background. Of course I can do nothing at such a moment, when the procession is slowly passing down the street. The closing off of the side streets symbolizes the new Christian's adherence to



the straight and narrow path, while the strewing of flowers is a sign of the flowery and pleasant path he will have through life. . . . Yes, I got the cap eventually.

In another part of town I spy a large crowd, in the center of which a Mexican is busily displaying from his large pack belts in gay colors, all embroidered with the same design. They seem to have a fascination for the Mixco Indian women, who are examining them and buying as fast as he can take their money. I too get one, of course, and with it the information that the women of Mixco have for years bought the belts for their costumes from these traders, who bring them from Oaxaca in Mexico. The belts have on them the figures of the feather dance, which is a traditional one in this region. Cogitating on the



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

#### A GROUP OF TEXTILES FROM SANTO TOMÁS CHICHICASTENANGO.

In the center are a *huipil* which belonged to a middle-class woman and a man's *tzute*, a cloth frequently used for carrying tortillas. At each side is a napkin.

reason why Mixco women wear belts from southern Mexico, I think back a good many years and bring to memory the background of the Indians of Mixco, who are not of the Sacatepéquez people although they live among them. They are Pocomán Indians, who in the dim past belonged to a Mexican family of Indians, an amazing bit to fit into the picture puzzle called the Guatemala Indian.

A market day in Tecpán is worth the long dusty drive to this old place, only a stone's throw from where the Cakchiqueles had their stronghold when the Spaniards came with Pedro de Alvarado at their head to conquer Guatemala in 1524. Tecpán lies like a jewel against a background of high mountains with even higher volcanoes outlined against the blue sky. An old fountain in the square furnishes the water for the Indians who gather here on market day to buy and barter

their various wares. They come from far and wide, the highland people meeting the lowland for an interchange of onions, dried fish, chiles, fruits and vegetables of all kinds, and last but not least, yards and yards of woolen materials, all hand woven and colored with vegetable dyes.

I wander around the market place for hours, every moment a sadder one. The Indians refuse emphatically to part with their clothes; while this is natural, it is disastrous for the fate of my collection. I see so many I simply must have. My eye follows longingly a fat matron with a huge *huipil* made out of a yellow, or rather brownish, cotton which is not dyed; the *huipil* is embroidered in colors bright as the jewels which her ancestors the Cakchiqueles wore in their crown when seated on the throne in Iximché, their capital.

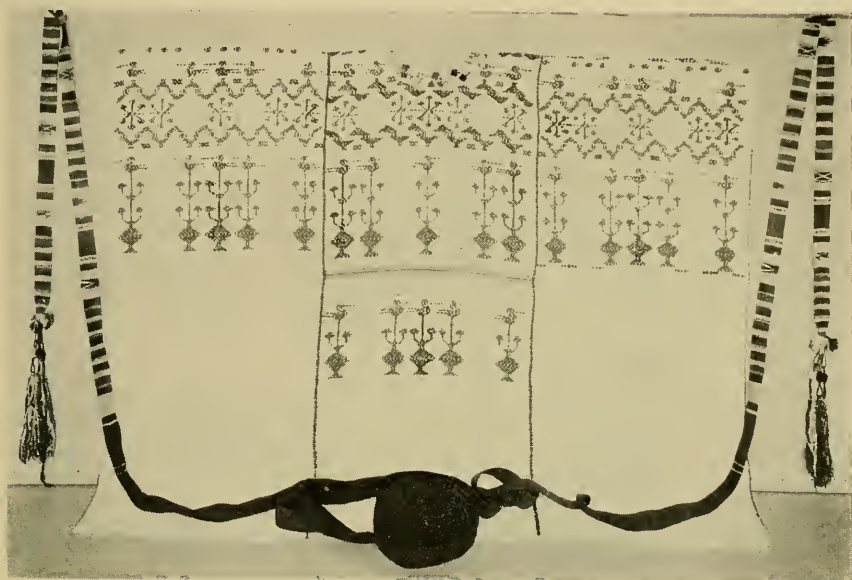
I go into the old church, where I admire the wooden roof painted with the figures of double-headed eagles dating from the time of Charles V, but not even this reminder of Spanish art can compensate me for the loss of a man's suit of handwoven black wool which I have just seen. The man wore the dark suit over white undergarments which showed through large slits in the trousers and sleeves; rows of buttons decorated the slits for no apparent purpose, and a gay red belt tied up the whole suit most snugly.

In desperation I leave town and find a group of Indians having their luncheon. Out of a bundle one produces some tortillas, and to my delight I see that the *tzute* or cloth in which they are wrapped, though dirty, has many double-headed eagles embroidered on it. Its owner sells eggs at a price, so I buy eggs lavishly, and explain to him at great length and with many gestures that eggs cannot be easily transported to my distant home unless I have something to wrap them in. The *tzute* will be just the thing, though it is old and used, and I hope against hope that he will not direct me to the large pile of baskets for sale only a few feet away. The youth, eager to finish his luncheon and be rid of his insistent customer, sells me the *tzute*, eagles, dirt, and all, and my collection is the richer for its beauty.

Well content with my prize, I meander down a shadowy lane, and see before me a whole family of Indians. Father is leading a fat pig by a string tied to one leg, mother has a baby on her back, and several children and dogs trudge along wearily after their day at the market. Mother Indian wears an enchanting garment worthy of further acquaintance, as is father's red coat, which has a whole flock of birds embroidered on it. My collector's spirit is aroused, and I hurry up in my friendliest manner. But to no avail, for the whole family, after one glance at my khaki breeches, take to their heels. My hopes are dashed to the ground as the whole tribe disappears through a hut into a cornfield.

But I am consoled by the appearance of a pretty Comalapa girl who is quite willing to part with her *huipil*. She goes into a doorway to take it off for me, going home in the plain white one which she always carries in her basket. I am the richer by one of the lovely red woolly *huipiles* which have such fascinating dogs prancing across their surface, and consider the day not a total loss.

A telegram announcing the arrival of *mozos*—men with packs—who are bringing material for my collection, has kept me at the door at intervals all morning. Finally, about five o'clock, I see four be-



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

#### A CEREMONIAL HUIPIL AND A HEAD-RIBBON.

On the white lace-like background of this *huipil* from Quezaltenango appear conventional designs in gold and lavender.

dragged and footsore Indians coming to my door. Only one of the four can speak a little Spanish. I escort them and their *cacartes* (boxlike affairs made of wood in which they carry their cargo on their backs) to my back yard. There they produce several bundles well wrapped in waterproof material, and two turkeys, very much alive after their four days' journey inside the *cacarte*. The latter are especially welcome, as Thanksgiving and Christmas are not far off, and are a friendly gift indeed from the kindly padre who lives high up in the mountains and has thousands of Indians under his spiritual wing. My Indian cook tells me that it is of no use to offer my guests food, as they will eat only their own, making their fire in the yard to



heat their tortillas and coffee. At four in the morning the Indians, who slept rolled up in their blankets like giant cocoons on the flagstones of the patio, are awake and heating their coffee; I am careful to send them off according to the instructions in the padre's letter, giving them sugar and coffee and good advice, and directing them homewards, making the farewell signal as they file out of the house. As the spokesman passes me he stops and makes me a deep reverence with arms crossed over his chest; then, still bending low in front of me, he presents me with a bunch of—no, not flowers, but onions and garlic, a parting gift to show their appreciation of my hospitality. I am deeply touched, knowing how undemonstrative the Indian is, and feel as though I had conquered kingdoms as I watch them disappear down the silent street, bound for their distant mountain home. They will reach their destination, if they are fortunate and weather permits, in four or five days; if the rivers are high and have to be crossed by swimming, with the burdens on their heads, they will take longer. On another occasion the telegram announcing their arrival did not reach me until seven days after they had left, for it had rained the whole way; the trails over the 10,000-foot divides were none too good and the rivers had become roaring torrents. The caves or thatch-roofed shelters in which they take refuge as they cross the high mountains are not very dry and warm.

I thought of all this as I looked at the contents of the parcel which they had brought. It was a precious Maxeño suit, of the kind worn by men of royal descent. It had the sun boldly embroidered on the front of the coat; its thick woolly surface was well covered with colored silk embroidery, and at the sides was long fringe. The trousers were short and open at the sides, the red sash had gorgeous purple and red embroidery all over it, and the head cloth was decorated with long silk tassels. It was indeed a suit worthy of a member of that noble race.

The Indians of Santo Tomás Chichicastenango, or Max as they are usually called, are the remnants of the true Quiché race. They were living at Utatlán when the Spaniards arrived, and after they were conquered they moved to where they now live. Descendents of kings, they are still a proud race and adhere strictly to their old rites and customs. Their clothes have something very Spanish mixed with the Indian; perhaps they imitated the clothes of their captors, or perhaps the Spaniards made them copy the foreign goods so that the textiles would be better suited for export to Spain.

I had hoped to find in the parcel a mauve and white *tzute*, such as the witch doctors use, but they are not easy to get. These men are held in so much reverence by the people of their tribe that they cannot be approached easily.

Several years ago I arrived at Chichicastenango at fiesta time. No more lovely sight can be seen anywhere in the world than the plaza at such a time, for there the Indians gather from all villages far and near. Those of the Max tribe come there from great distances for the great fiesta of December 21, the most important one of the year in the town. Dressed in their gala clothes, the Indians gather in the great square to barter and to sell; from the nearby churches hourly processions go forth through the streets; in the corner of a former convent a barber is busily plying his trade.

As I stroll along the streets this fiesta time, I despair of ever having a presentable collection, for there are so many wonderful costumes

#### A MAXEÑO MAN'S SUIT.

Such clothes of wool, embroidered with silk, are worn only by men descended from the royalty of the Max tribe. This suit came from Santo Tomás Chichicastenango.



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

whose owners are not at all pleased at my wanting them. But I acquire a *rodillera*, a beautiful black and red woolen ruglike affair which the Indians use to protect their backs from their loads and which is a specialty in this region. I get, too, after much pleading, a brown *huipil* woven from natural brown cotton and embroidered profusely in red silk; it has one of the black silk disks to which an old silver coin is attached. That is a sign of great rank; the more common ones nowadays have substituted for the silver coins plain snaps made in the United States.

It is at this fiesta time that all the babies are christened together. Godmothers in huge white embroidered *huipiles* hide the babies from

staring eyes, carrying them to church carefully under the ample folds. They are followed by most of the family, and if it is a boy baby, the proud father and grandfather are beaming with pride. Nothing will do but that I have a "godmother *huipil*", and the very loveliest among them has just passed me. I discover that it has been handed down for generations until it came into the possession of a woman who rents this sort of garment for godmothers *de luxe*, and who, of course, refuses sternly every offer I make. While I admire a particularly lovely Quiché baby, a direct descendent of the kings of Quiché, I lose sight of my particular godmother. I hurriedly find and follow the trail of the *huipil* of my ambition. The wearer walks a mile, I do likewise. As my endurance gives out, I find a convenient horse saddled and tied to a post in front of a hut. Thanks to the horse, I overtake the lady of the *huipil*, but my tactics are, apparently, not those of a good general. She dodges into a hedge which my horse shies at, and I am left sans horse, sans *huipil*, and sans breath to shout to the interpreter who is bringing up the rear. The owner of the horse suddenly appears to claim his property, but as he speaks *Castilla*, I explain the situation and urge him to use his influence to get me the *huipil*, telling him the amount of money I am willing to pay for it, and explaining how with that sum the entire family will be able to celebrate on an unprecedented scale the whole fiesta season. All this produces no immediate effect, but hours later, as I stand in the Plaza, my particular godmother arrives and stealthily slips the treasure into my hand, and I reciprocate with the money.

Early morning frost is on the ground in beautiful Quezaltenango, a city situated 7,000 feet above sea level; there, thanks to the wonderful climate, all the rosy-cheeked Indians are sturdy, belonging to one of the finest races in the country. The early morning hours see endless processions of Indians marching in to market, bringing fruit and vegetables from the near-by villages. They are a veritable feast to the eye of the collector. The Almolonga Indians come up a hill wearing their gay red and white clothes gorgeously embroidered in many colored silks. The men's shirts are a mass of decoration, both back and front, in red and yellow silks. Such a garment I should cherish to wear only for "Sunday-go-to-meeting best", but they think nothing of carrying a great load of charcoal on their backs in this gorgeous array.

Almolonga is situated on the side of a hill. I have to climb like a goat up and down narrow paths to get anywhere, but the trouble is worth while. I buy a lovely *cochaj*, a cloth in red and white thickly embroidered in silks and used by the women to protect their backs from their loads. It is truly a museum piece, and I am able to obtain it only because I looked up a former servant of mine who



belonged to this village. While her mother entertained me with a tale of her son and his search for a bride, the servant bought several things for me, so I return to Quezaltenango well satisfied with my morning.

In Quezaltenango I start out in search of a Quiché prayer veil. It is a long lacelike affair with a round hole surrounded with embroidery where the face appears; the rest envelops the person from head to foot in a misty cloud of white with yellow and purple embroidery. I find one, and also acquire a crepelike white wedding veil, of the kind



Photograph by Federico Meinecke.

RAIMUNDO AND ROSARIO.

The traders of San Cristóbal Totonicapán from whom the author secured numerous textiles for her collection.

so dear to the heart of the older Indians; these veils were worn before the younger generation grew so fond of heavily embroidered affairs.

When Rosario and Raimundo arrive, it is an event for me, as these two traders from San Cristóbal Totonicapán have been my good friends for years. I am proud of my friendship with them, for no finer type can be found than these two lowly Indians, hardworking and faithful, who always bring me, for my collection, some choice piece which they have come across in their peregrinations to different villages. Their own materials, woven in their one-room house, are superb, but I have already examples of all their different weaves, and purely trade pieces do not interest me. Their wares are magnificent, despite the unattractive bundles in which they are wrapped and

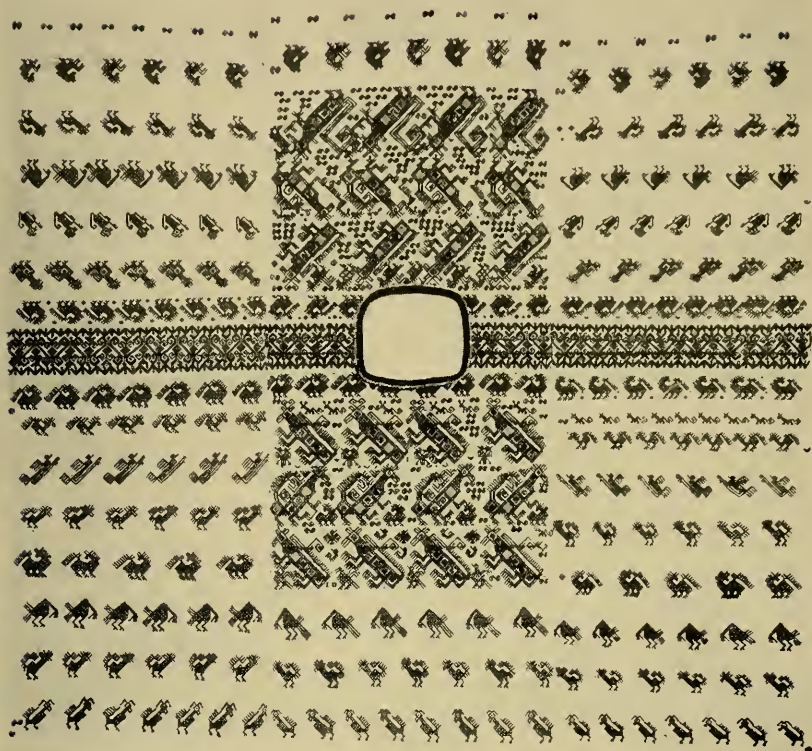
which, when opened, reveal a stream of shimmering textiles sorely tempting to a slender purse. This time they have brought me a wonderful head band or ribbon woven with many symbolic figures and finished with a huge silver and silk tassel. It was made to be worn by a bride of their people, the huge tassels indicating that it is for a woman of very high caste indeed, while every bird and symbol could be translated into lore as old as the tribe itself, were one conversant with the legends of these people.

Once, years ago, I visited the highland home of these friends, where I received a most cordial reception. While I inspected their looms, which occupied the largest part of their single-roomed house, Rosario went out into the yard and came back shortly with a steaming cup of tea. Once she had heard me say in my distant house in Guatemala City that I liked my tea every afternoon, and she was doing her hospitable best to please me. The carved gourd the tea was served in was artistic enough to make any beverage it contained tempting.

Raimundo entertained me by discussing the various dyes and their uses; most of them are made from plants. The dark blue comes from a well-mashed grass; the purple, when not from the mollusk, is made out of blackberry juice; the wild tomato, or sometimes the blood of an animal, will be used for a brilliant red, and so on down the long list of dyes made from berries, roots, and bark of trees. Every village has its own pet dyes, and guards well the secret of their making. But today, alas, foreign dyes are taking the place of the older ones, making the textiles less attractive and the colors by no means as fast as were the older ones.

As I left Raimundo's domicile, I stopped to watch an old dame marking the design for a *huipil* of the kind which are embroidered after they have been woven. She might have been a picture out of a very old book as she sat and carefully drew in the design with a chicken feather dipped in mashed grass. When we returned after a few days, the *huipil* was finished and became mine, an invaluable garment, for it is so long that it serves the double purpose of petticoat and *huipil*, and is so thick and warm that it is at the same time a wrap for cool weather.

The skirts worn by the women are not as attractive as the *huipiles*. The cloth is made on larger foot looms, and the designs are woven in. They always carry out the tribal colors, as also do the belts which hold up the skirts. Men also have colorful clothes, although many have discarded their tribal ones and retain only the belts with their symbols. Such a one I got at Concepción from the *alcalde*; it was done in reds and yellows, with a wide lace finishing off the ends.



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

#### A CEREMONIAL HUIPIL.

This elaborate *huipil* with its numerous red and purple animals was used as a prayer veil by an Indian of San Pedro Sacatepéquez.

For years my household supply of rice, coffee, beans, potatoes, and frijoles has arrived once a month in a huge load on the back of a faithful Indian, Francisco. His faith in our entire family is childlike. When he had celebrated the holiday of his patron saint only too well, and my supply of staples threatened, I would send by his boys large doses of castor oil which worked wonders; he seldom failed to appear soon thereafter, claiming perhaps a headache, which I immediately cured with aspirin, hoping that my work as a prescribing doctor would not entirely extinguish our monthly provisions. Francisco's wife and daughters are good weavers and have contributed a great deal to my collection, though the best piece I have from their village was the handkerchief Francisco used one day when threatened with what I diagnosed as the flu. The kerchief was red with fantastic animals embroidered all over its surface.



Hence my advice to prospective collectors never to be without aspirin or castor oil, for aspirin brought me another choice piece. An old patriarch of his tribe lay as one dead. Considering it a case of fever, I brought out my aspirin which the daughters took with many misgivings and gave to him. I likewise felt misgivings, but the old man felt better for my dose, and I was the richer for a man's suit from the San Martín Chile Verde tribe—it had a long black wool overtunic with fringe at the ends, a red embroidered sash, and a red head dress which makes the wearer look like a dweller in Tibet.

It is cold in the highlands, especially at night, so the Momostenango blankets are much appreciated in those regions; hardly an Indian on any of the trails but has one of them strapped to his load to roll himself in when he goes to sleep. It is a never-to-be-forgotten sight to arrive at Momostenango on market day. In the big square hundreds of blankets are ready for sale, as well as wool, looms, and even the nettles for carding the wool. Many of the finished blankets are spread out in the church square to be dried by the sun after having been wet while being woven with the sulphurous waters of the nearby river; this gives them a special quality, making them waterproof and seemingly everlasting. The dyes used in them, as well as in the woolen materials that are a specialty of this region, are made right on the spot, and are so good that these blankets are fast acquiring an international reputation. Those of lamb's wool are especially choice.

It took years of patience to get a *charchal* or coin necklace, to add to my collection. They are highly prized by the Indian women, and cannot be bought at any price except when their owners change over to modern clothes. It was in Momostenango that I was led on the trail of a beautiful one, which has several old silver crosses and many old coins in its make-up. Although not a textile, it is a part of a collection of this sort, as no self-respecting Indian would be without one if her tribe required that she wear it; she would suffer poverty rather than part with this inherited treasure.

Huehuetenango has many delectable costumes, but none quite so fascinating as the *huipiles* from San Mateo Ixtatán, which are decorated with designs in yellow like the rays of the sun. These *huipiles* are exceptionally thick, often having as many as eight yards of hand woven cloth in their make-up.

Holy week is usually a good time to go hunting for textiles, as every one takes a holiday and dresses in his best for the festivities. From the villages around Lake Atitlán came many treasures, including a beautiful green embroidered belt, yards and yards long, worn by one

of the dancers of the *Son*. This dance is accompanied by the strange music of their native instruments, such as the *chirimía*, *tun*, and *marimba*.

It is hard to drag one's self away from Lake Atitlán, a region too beautiful for description, where an azure sky is forever reflected in the deep waters of this lovely lake, and the high volcanoes watch over

#### NECKLACES OF OLD SILVER COINS AND CROSSES.

The larger necklace, which belonged to a woman of Cobán, Alta Verapaz, is of a type highly prized by many of the Guatemalan tribes. The smaller, with beads and figurine pendants of jade, belonged to a witch doctor of Chichicastenango, Department of Quiché.



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

the multitude of villages clinging precariously to the hillsides, while their inhabitants look like gay birds as they make their way along the many trails bordering the lake. But I had seen a coat up in Sololá which I had to pursue. It had many pockets in its thick woolly make-up, each pocket carefully outlined with black wool tape. Every pocket adds to the value, as that is the way these coats are valued—so many more pockets, so much greater price.

A treasured Nahulá textile was hard to get, for those stolid Indians strongly object to having their clothes owned by strangers, just as they are averse to having any stranger stay within their village over night. In a nearby village I got a textile with a blue ground on which were embroidered many colored sunsets, the striking and colorful effect somewhat spoiled by an ordinary foreign ribbon around the neck. In this village they have some curious but sound laws. For instance, a murderer is not put into prison to be a burden on the community; he is declared an outcast. Nobody will speak to him, and he is carefully watched to see that he carries out the tribal law, which requires that he till and plant the corn fields belonging to the widow of the slain man, or otherwise support her, until the youngest child is at least sixteen years old.

My best string bag, the one with brown and white stripes made by a man who used two sticks like knitting needles, I managed to buy from the guardian of the jail.

In far-away Cobán the Indians often have fair hair, which looks odd above their tribal clothes. Some of the most beautiful pieces of my collection came from this region: a splendid *huipil* in white and red, closely embroidered; a very fine white woven one with an intricate design, a sheer affair well suited to the warm climate of the country. Until recently no self-respecting woman would wear anything but pure white, but that has been changed, as has the pretty style of wearing the vivid red *Serpiente de Coral*, or coral snake, of many strands of wool woven in the long hair of all the matrons.

I could give many more instances where I have run across lore and legend in search of material for my collection, as well as amusing personal experiences which I treasure in my memory. But disappointment has also been my lot. It has not been possible to get a suit made of fibers and trimmed with macaw and parrot feathers, such as the Lacandón Indians wear. My cup was full to overflowing when I acquired a suit of the Todos Santos village men's clothes. They rather look as if they had been modeled after a pirate's suit, yet their wide collars and flapping trousers do not seem to diminish to any degree the dignity of these tall austere mountain men who dwell in a nook of the highest mountains in the country, and who still regulate their lives according to dates set by the *Tzolkin*, or old ceremonial calendar of 265 days to the year.

Health, or rather the lack of it, made us live for a while in the hot lowlands, but it was not time wasted. I rode many hours on muleback along the highways and byways in search of material. I



met much to my taste, despite the fact that it is not good form to wear many clothes in that ardent clime. The men wear only dirty white trousers rolled to their knees, with an entrancing *tzute* well embroidered hanging from their necks. The women's headbands and the cloths in which they carry tortillas are well worth a search; their skirts are beautifully designed and woven, and not difficult to get.

I am glad that I got together my collection while the old order still existed, for true tribal designs on the textiles are rapidly disappearing or becoming mixed with those of other tribes. One and all, the items in my precious collection are veritable works of art. The subtle blending of colors and the romance woven into every piece give to the making of such a collection a zest which quite compensates for the time and energy spent on it.





## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD

*Seventh International Conference of American States.*—This conference, for which the program, as published in the July 1933 issue of the BULLETIN, was prepared by the Governing Board, convenes in Montevideo on December 3, upon the invitation of the Government of Uruguay. At this time the complete list of delegates is not available.

*Election of officers.*—The first session of the Governing Board for the year 1933-34 was held on November 1. The Vice Chairman, Dr. Adrián Recinos, the Minister of Guatemala, moved in complimentary phrases that the Secretary of State of the United States, the Hon. Cordell Hull, be reelected Chairman of the Board. The motion having been unanimously passed, the Chairman expressed his warm thanks for the honor conferred upon him and commented at some length upon subjects of interest to the work of the Pan American Union. The Minister of Uruguay, as the dean of the Board, responded in English to the remarks of the Chairman, and then in Spanish nominated the Minister of Venezuela, Dr. Pedro M. Arcaya, as Vice Chairman. After his unanimous election, the new Vice Chairman cordially thanked his colleagues for the honor paid him.

### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*Brazilian prize novels.*—The *Academia Brasileira* has announced its prize novels for 1933. The first prize was awarded to Senhor José Geraldo Vieira for *A mulher que fugiu de Sodoma*; the second to Senhor Wanderley for *Sol Criminosa*; and the third to Senhor Ribeiro Couto for *Cabocla*. Senhor Martins de Oliveira received the first prize in the short story class for *No País das carnaúbas*. Other awards were made for the best poetry and drama.

*"Colombia, the treasure land."*—The Pan American Union has for distribution a limited number of an illustrated pamphlet of 55 pages, bearing the above title and published recently by the Consulate Gen-

eral of Colombia in New York City. These will be sent upon request as long as the supply lasts.

*Decorative map of Mexico City.*—The library has received a brilliantly decorative historical map of Mexico City, published in 1932 by the Compañía Luz y Fuerza Motriz, S. A. and Compañía de Tranvías de México, S. A. It is entitled *Mapa de la Ciudad de México y alrededores hoy y ayer*, and is the work of Emily Edwards.

*National Library of Venezuela.*—Last year the National Library of Venezuela at Caracas had 43,081 readers, which is an increase of 1,662 over 1931. Dr. José E. Machado, the librarian, reports that the circulating library is very popular.

*Activities of the Columbus Memorial Library.*—The Library announces the publication of number 8 of its bibliographic series entitled *Obras existentes en la Biblioteca Colón de la Unión Panamericana sobre organización de bibliotecas y sistemas de clasificación*, comprising 13 mimeographed leaves. Seventy-two works are listed with the table of contents of each item. At the end is an appendix containing a list of library periodicals.

During the past month the library received 508 requests for information. This unusually large number seems to be attributable to the greater interest being shown by universities and some women's organizations in Latin American affairs.

*Annual report.*—The report of the librarian of the Columbus Memorial Library for the fiscal year 1932-33, as submitted to the Director General of the Pan American Union, shows that its staff has been called upon with increasing frequency to assist in an advisory capacity individuals and institutions; to give its aid regarding technical phases of library work, and to indicate sources of information on various subjects in Latin America and the United States. Another service rendered was the tracing and purchasing of books for persons in Latin America who would have great difficulty in finding the publications they desired in the United States were they not given assistance by the Library.

The several publications comprising the bibliographic series, which are compiled and edited in the Library, have been well received. This series will be continued during the coming year.

A statistical survey by mail of all libraries in Latin America was begun in an effort to provide accurate data from which to prepare a table showing the extent of library development there.

The collection in the Library increased by 2,638 volumes and pamphlets, making a total of 80,301 and necessitating the addition of 274 lineal feet of shelving. The Library receives 1,188 newspapers and magazines. Current indexing and cataloguing provided 11,911 additional cards for the catalog. Twenty-seven maps and 2 atlases were added to the collection, making the totals 1,989 and 150 respectively. A new 15-tray steel map case will facilitate the use of the



maps as well as protect them. During the year several shipments, totaling 116 publications, were sent in exchange to various libraries in the countries members of the Pan American Union.

*Photographs*—The Pan American Union's photograph collection has recently been enriched by the addition of 381 prints. These photographs include city and country scenes in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela, in addition to prints of works of art which have been exhibited in the United States and portraits of prominent men.

*Acquisitions*.—Among the 266 volumes received during the past month is a collection of works by Antoine Michel, of Haiti, which includes *La xiv<sup>e</sup>. legislature*, in four volumes, the first volume of *La mission du G.al Hédouville a Saint-Domingue*, and *Avènement du Général Fabre Nicolas Geffrard à la Présidence d'Haïti*.

The following titles have been selected from the remainder:

*Estado actual de los métodos de la historia literaria*, traducción de diversos estudios de Paul Van Tieghem, Benedetto Croce, Bernard Faÿ, Miguel Dragonirescu, Lorenz Eckhoff, Josef Nadler, Jean Hankiss, Luigi Russo, Levin L. Schücking, Georges Ascoli, Wl. Folkierski, etc. [compilado por] Raúl Silva Castro. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1933. 171 p. 23½ cm.

*La Araucana*, [por] Alonso de Ercilla y Zúñiga. Edición hecha por la Universidad de Chile, con motivo de la celebración del cuarto centenario de Alonso de Ercilla. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1933. 2 v. 20 cm.

*Jurisprudencia caballeresca argentina*, [por] César Viale. Nueva edición corregida y aumentada. Buenos Aires, 1928. 526 p. 20 cm.

*Ideas sobre la posición actual de la pedagogía*, [por] Fernando Chaves. Quito, Talleres gráficos nacionales, 1933. 200 p. 17½ cm. (Publicaciones del Ministerio de educación pública.)

*La instrucción pública en la Nueva España en el siglo xvi*, estudio presentado para obtener el grado de maestro en ciencias históricas, por Tomás Zepeda Rincón . . . México, 1933. 138 p. 22 cm.

*Los centenarios de 1933*: Doctor Luis Cordero, Don Luis Zaldumbide, Doctor Antonio Flores Jijón, Doctor José Modesto Espinoza, [por] Dr. Carlos A. Rolando. Guayaquil, Imprenta i talleres municipales [1933]. 79 p. ports. 19½ cm.

*Tratado de direito internacional público*, por Hildebrando Accioly. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa nacional, 1933. Tomo 1: 549 p. 24½ cm.

*Homenajes a Eloy Alfaro*. La Habana, Tipos. Molina y cía., 1933. 151 p. 18 cm.

*Preceptiva literaria para estudios de secundaria y normal*, por Enrique Muñoz Meany . . . Primera edición. Guatemala, [Tipografía nacional] 1933. 560 p. 27 cm.

*Las culturas protohistóricas del este argentino y Uruguay*, por Antonio Serrano . . . Paraná, Talleres gráficos Casa Predassi, 1933. 39 p. plates. 26½ cm. (Memorias del Museo de Paraná; [Museo escolar central de la provincia] n.º 7, arqueología.)

*El método Decroly en el segundo año de la escuela primaria*, por Jesús Salinas . . . [La Paz] Editorial López Santiviáñez [1933]. 244 p. 26 cm.

*Visiones de la gran aldea*; Buenos Aires hace sesenta años, [por] Ismael Bucich Escobar (Martín Correa). 1.ª serie, 1869-1870. Buenos Aires, Imp. Ferrari hnos., 1932. 269 p. 24½ cm.

*Antología de la literatura española desde los orígenes hasta principios del siglo xix*, por M. Romera-Navarro. Boston, D. C. Heath y compañía [c1933]. 427 p. 23 cm.

*A collection of the diplomatic and consular laws and regulations of various countries*, edited by A. H. Feller . . . and Manley O. Hudson . . . Washington, Carnegie endowment for international peace, 1933. 2 v. 25 cm.

*Didáctica de la escuela nueva*, [por] Alfredo Miguel Aguayo. Habana, Cultural, s.a., 1932. 388 p. 24½ cm.

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*El Salvador en Europa*; revista consular. Amberes, Bélgica, 1933. Año 1, n.º 1, marzo, 1933. 52 p. illus., ports. 27½ x 22 cm. Monthly. Address: Cónsul general de El Salvador en Bélgica, Amberes, Belgica.

*Revista del trabajo*; órgano oficial de la Inspección general del trabajo. Santiago de Chile, 1933. Año III, núm. 5, mayo de 1933. 95 p. illus. 26 x 19 cm. Monthly. Address: Ministerio del trabajo, Santiago de Chile.

*Revista de estudios penitenciarios*. Santiago de Chile, 1933. Año I, núm. 1, junio de 1933. 52 p. 27 x 19 cm. Bi-monthly. Address: Dirección general de prisiones, Santiago de Chile.

*Técnica*; magazine de la industria, del comercio y de informaciones científicas. Santiago de Chile, 1933. Año I, n.º 1, 14 de junio de 1933. 64 p. illus. 26½ x 18½ cm. Semi-monthly. Address: Casilla 63 D, Santiago de Chile.

*Acción social*. Santiago de Chile, 1933. Año II, n.º 14, marzo de 1933. 79 p. 27 x 18½ cm. Monthly. Address: Caja de seguro obligatorio, Casilla 7-D, Santiago de Chile.

*D N C*; revista do Departamento nacional do café. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Año I, n.º 1, julho de 1933. 84 p. illus., fold. col. plate., tables (part. fold.) diagrs. 24 x 19 cm. Monthly. Address: Departamento nacional do café, Edifício de "A Noite", 7º andar, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

*El mundo gráfico*; magazine popular científico, estudios, viajes y exploraciones. México, D.F., 1933. vol. II, núm. 3, septiembre, 1933. 286 p. illus. 25½ x 17½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Ing. Rafael Aguilar Olmos. Address: Apartado postal 429, México, D.F.

*Boletín del Ministerio de salubridad y de agricultura y cría*. Caracas, Venezuela, 1933. Año I, n.º 1, 24 de julio de 1933. 84 p. illus. 23½ x 16½ cm. Monthly. Address: Ministerio de salubridad y de agricultura y cría, Caracas, Venezuela.

*Las provincias*; revista gráfica revolucionaria. México, D.F., 1933. Año II, n.º 14, septiembre de 1933. [64] p. illus., ports. 28 x 19½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Ing. Juan de Dios Batiz. Address: Apartado no. 2772, Mexico, D.F.

*La semana gráfica*; revista nacional ilustrada. La Paz, 1933. Año I, n.º 47, 16 de septiembre de 1933. [29] p. illus., ports., map. 35½ x 25 cm. Weekly. Editor: Francisco Villarejos. Address: Casilla correo n.º 400, La Paz, Bolivia.

*Archivos uruguayos de medicina, cirugía y especialidades*; órgano oficial de la federación de las sociedades médico-científicas del Uruguay. Montevideo, 1933. [p. [177]-336.] illus. 24 x 17 cm.

*Boletim do Centro do professorado paulista*. São Paulo, Brasil, 1933. Año IV, núm. 4, julho de 1933. 16 p. port. 32½ x 24 cm. Monthly. Editor: Prof. M. Moura Santos. Address: Caixa postal n. 183, São Paulo, Brasil.

*Estudios*, the monthly educational review published in Panama by Octavio Méndez Pereira, resumed publication with the issue for September, 1933, año 8, n.º 1, after having suspended publication since January, 1931.

During the past month the Library received notice that the following magazines had suspended publication with the issues noted:

*Bolivia comercial*, La Paz, Bolivia, August 15, 1933.

*Bolivia económica e industrial*, La Paz, Bolivia, December 1932-February, 1933.

*Granja modelo de Puno*, Chuquibambilla, Puno, Peru, June 1932.

## NECROLOGY

DR. MARIANO VÁSQUEZ.—After a long and painful illness the distinguished HONDURAN jurist, Dr. Mariano Vásquez, died in Tegucigalpa on August 30, 1933. Doctor Vásquez had played an important role in national and international affairs. As Deputy to the National Congress, Governor and chief of the military forces of La Paz, Minister of Foreign Relations, Minister of Public Instruction, and Minister of Government, he gave proof of his devotion to his country's welfare. As delegate to the Central American Conference in San José and to the Sixth International Conference of American States in Habana, and as representative of Honduras on the Guatemalan-Honduran Boundary Commission in Washington and before the Special Boundary Tribunal created by the commission, he won added prestige. The Republic of Honduras observed three days of national mourning and, after Doctor Vásquez had lain in state in the Assembly Hall of Congress, buried him with the honors befitting his rank.

DR. AUGUSTO ORREGO LUCO.—With the death of Dr. Augusto Orrego on August 26, 1933, Chile has lost a citizen distinguished in many fields of endeavor. As a physician, Dr. Orrego Luco enjoyed wide repute, being especially noted for his studies of mental disorders. After his graduation from the Medical School in 1873, and for nearly 35 years thereafter, he was identified with the teaching and practice of medicine. He was also well known as an author and journalist; he founded, edited, or contributed to magazines and newspapers for many years, and at one time was president of the Chilean Press Association. Doctor Orrego Luco's career as a statesman dated from his youth. He was first elected Deputy to the National Congress in 1876, and ten years later he was chosen President of the Chamber of Deputies. His first cabinet position was that of Minister of the Interior, in 1897; he was Minister of Public Instruction in 1898 and again in 1915. Recognition abroad included membership in the Academy of Science of Paris and corresponding membership in the Royal Academy of Madrid.

















